

ADJUSTMENT TO DIVORCE OF WOMEN WITH CUSTODY:
AFFILIATION, COHESION AND SOCIAL SUPPORT

BY

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The purpose of this study was to investigate the psychological adjustment of custodial single parents following marital disruption. The participants were white females over the age of 25 who had custody of at least one minor child. The subjects were obtained from ten different organizations in the community along with referrals from group members. The dependent measure was psychological adjustment as measured by the Interpersonal Check List, Form II. Three independent psychological variables were assessed: perceived marital cohesion as measured by the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scale; current affiliation with former husband as measured by the Interpersonal Check List, Form I; and current social support as measured by A Short Scale for the Evaluation of Social Support (ASSESS). Five demographic parameters were also utilized as independent variables: age, length of time married, length of time separated and/or divorced, regularity of child support payments and socioeconomic status. These variables were

selected as relevant to adjustment following marital disruption based on a review of current literature.

It was hypothesized that affiliation, cohesion, social support and the demographic parameters would be predictors of adjustment. A multiple regression analysis was performed for these nine variables. A secondary analysis correlation was performed on all the variables. Results of the multiple regression analysis indicated that a relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable was not significant. Possible explanations to account for the findings are presented. They include the limits of the sample, the limits of the instruments and the limits of the state of the art. The results and the implications they have for future research are included.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Many marriages are long-term arrangements that are satisfying, fulfilling and rewarding for both partners and provide positive environments for child-rearing. However, the failure rate of marriages is increasing and many marriages are terminated by separation and divorce.

Current statistics indicate that, with the exception of a decline during the Depression and a slight peak immediately following World War II, the divorce rate in the United States has been increasing steadily since the early twentieth century. The divorce rate for women under 45 has increased from 15 per 1,000 in the mid 1950's to 37 per 1,000 in the late 1970's. In 1966 the U.S. Bureau of the Census projected that three of every ten marriages for women born between 1945 and 1949 would end in divorce. A decade later the estimate had increased to four of every ten (Norton & Glick, 1979).

Many of these divorces involve children. It is estimated that the average divorce involves two children and almost 90% of the custodial parents are female (U.S. Department of Health & Human Services, 1980). In 1970 there were almost three million female single parents (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970). In 1975 there were over 1.7 million divorced, white single mothers (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1976). A significant proportion of the population of this country, both adult and

child, has experienced, or is experiencing the impact of marital disruption.

The rate of parental divorce impacts on psychologists and counselors. Utilization studies have shown that single mothers are proportionally the major users of mental health services (Guttentag, Salasin & Belle, 1980). While the rate of single mother clients has increased, information on the components of single parent adjustment has not increased proportionally. Therefore, there is a need for further information on the adjustment of female single parents (Ferri, 1976).

For many divorced women adjustment to marital disruption entails addressing reopened, unresolved issues (Wiseman, 1975). Identity has been related to their marital patterns and adjustment to divorce entails establishing new adult roles and relationships. Evaluations of the adjustment process (Kessler, 1975; Fisher, 1976; Raschke, 1977) have concluded that relationship with others is a critical variable in the understanding and measurement of individual adjustment to divorce. These relationships include past and current relationship with spouse as well as the social support system. Adjustment to being single again signified developing a network of individuals that meet the needs of the single individual that were previously met by the marital system. This implies either recreating a facsimile of the marital system if the person has not changed, or the creation of a modified marital system if the crisis has promoted improved mental health or mastery (Caplan, 1974, 1981). Thus, the cohesion pattern of the marital system and the post-divorce support system can both be viewed as parameters of adjustment.

Rarely does the social system return to the pre-crisis state, although when stability is reestablished certain characteristics are kept (Lipman-Blumen, 1975). The social system adjusts to the perceived needs of the person. For each person, the social support system functions in a manner similar to the functioning of a family prior to marital dissolution (Putney, 1981). Adequate social support affects adjustment at all times and particularly after a crisis in support has occurred.

The relationship between former spouses who are parents has also emerged as a critical variable in understanding adult post-divorce adjustment (Goldsmith, 1980). The mother-father dyadic interaction may be a vital consideration (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1975), but there is little data on the nature and patterns of this relationship (Hess & Camara, 1979; Pais & White, 1979). While there is consensus that parenting involves cooperation and support (Kressel & Deutsch, 1977), there is minimal agreement on the ideal content of parental interactions after separation (Suarez, Weston & Harstein, 1978). Not only do individuals experiencing separation/divorce lack knowledge concerning how to work out their parental relationship, but psychologists and counselors also lack information on normative behaviors for satisfactory postdivorce parental interaction (Goldsmith, 1980). Research on adjustment that incorporates parental interaction is needed. It would be helpful to counselors and psychologists in preparing clients for the divorce experience (Raschke & Barringer, 1977; Schumer, Musetto & Cordier, 1982).

Adjustment to being single again is a multifaceted adjustment for single parents. Weiss (1975) suggests that separation and divorce are incidents "in the relationship of spouses, rather than an ending of that relationship" (p. 83). This is even more evident in the case of former spouses who are also parents. The existence of children perpetuates the need for interaction between former spouses long after the termination of the marriage. The relationship between former spouses continues in that they still maintain roles as parents to their children even though their roles as partners to one another have terminated (Bohannon, 1971). As they disengage from one another in the process of adjustment to being single again, they interact in the continuing process of their parental roles and ties.

Individual personality systems adjust in varying degrees and in varied patterns of interactions (Leary, 1957). From an interpersonal theoretical view, adjustment responses for single parents can be viewed from the perspective of three interpersonal patterns: the affiliation with the former spouse, the cohesion of the marital system and the support system of significant others.

The affect of affiliation associated with the interaction between former spouses can range from friendly to hostile. Adjustment to being single again suggests the end of contact with a former spouse, while parenting suggests the continuation of contact. While in some cases noncustodial parents totally terminate their relationship with their former partner and their children, in most instances there is some type of ongoing contact between parents. Therefore, an aspect of adjustment to being a single again that is critical for a female single parent is her relationship to her former husband.

Family systems theorists have used the cohesion dimension in the evaluation of both the system and the members of the system (Olson, Russell, & Sprenkle, 1980(b); Olson, Sprenkle, & Russell, 1979). Too much cohesion, or enmeshment, and too little cohesion, or disengagement, are both considered dysfunctional (Russell, 1979). While the dissolution of the system is classified as divorce, the adults may be dysfunctional or extreme in many permutations (Olson, Russell & Sprinkle, 1980(a)). Divorce may be the consequence of a wife who is either enmeshed or disengaged. Her husband may have established either a parallel or opposing relationship. While for any of these dyads the degree of cohesion has become dysfunctional and led to marital disruption, each individual can be evaluated on degree of cohesion. The degree of cohesion may affect the divorce adjustment process. Specifically, individuals who perceived their marriage as enmeshed may experience a divorce adjustment that is different from women who were disengaged in their marriage. Theoretically each person will experience the crisis in a manner that is congruent with his or her perception of how the system operated. Each will adjust to the crisis in a manner congruent with the system as it was perceived. The adjustment pattern following separation/divorce may be functionally related to the perceived degree of cohesion of the pre-crisis system.

Crisis literature emphasizes the significance of the family of the individual experiencing crisis (Umana, Gross, & McConville, 1980). The crisis of divorce, however, is a unique type of family crisis because it is a disruption of a primary coping system as well as a crisis.

Major family system theorists (Minuchin, 1974; Satir, 1967) stress the homeostatic nature of interaction patterns. After divorce has

disrupted a woman's interaction with her former husband, her individual needs are no longer met by her marital relationship. Her social support system may develop to meet those needs. Homeostatic theory of family interaction would postulate that her social support system will develop to meet needs formerly met by her husband. In addition, the efficacy of the social support may be a predictor of her adjustment to divorce (Kitson & Raschke, 1981).

Several demographic parameters have been investigated in relation to separation/divorce adjustment (Price-Bonham & Balswick, 1980). They include who wants the divorce, age, length of marriage variables, race, socioeconomic variables, and number, age and sex of children.

There is evidence that interaction patterns between spouses are maintained during and after divorce (Spanier & Casto, 1979). If such relationships maintain homeostasis regardless of the legal status of a marriage, then the antecedents of the adjustment of female single parents following marital disruption may be found in the degree of perceived cohesion of the marital relationship, the affiliation pattern that currently is perceived between former spouses, and the current social support system. In addition, demographic variables may be predictors of adjustment.

Purpose of the Study

It was the purpose of this study to discern the relationship between the adjustment of female single parents following marital disruption and social support, affiliation with former husband, perceived marital cohesion and various demographic parameters. Subjects were evaluated on the basis of four interpersonal parameters:

adjustment, marital cohesion, social support and affiliation with former husband. More specifically, this study attempted to answer the following questions: is there a relationship between marital cohesion and the post-divorce adjustment of female custodial parents? Is there a relationship between affiliation with former husband and post-divorce adjustment? Is there a relationship between current social support and the post-divorce adjustment of female custodial parents? Is there a relationship between a combination of these parameters and the post-divorce adjustment of female custodial parents? In addition, what is the relationship, if any, between demographic variables and post-divorce adjustment?

Rationale

Initial research and theory on divorce looked at a population that was atypical in American society. While much of this initial work was done by sociologists (Goode, 1956; Waller, 1967), in the mid 1960's when divorced individuals became more numerous mental health professionals began to address the issue. They have provided three approaches to the study of the divorce process and adjustment: (1) treatment models applying to individual, couple or family interventions (Levy & Joffe, 1977), (2) theory attempting to explore the usefulness of models of crisis (Wiseman, 1975), and growth after the divorce experience (Hunt, 1966; Kessler, 1975), and (3) research addressing the causes and process of divorce and factors correlating to divorce adjustment (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). While there have been scattered attempts to integrate the domains of theory, data and treatment (Rose & Price-Bonham, 1973), the assessment of parameters germane to therapeutic interventions of divorce

adjustment within a general theoretical framework is a relatively new area.

Research concerning the relationship between adjustment and perceived marital cohesion, social support and affiliation with former husband should shed needed light on the divorce adjustment process. While divorce adjustment has been investigated in relation to each parameter, the two have not been investigated together as predictors of divorce adjustment. This research will add additional bridges between the interpersonal model and adjustment. In addition, an integration of these variables may have direct implication for the treatment of single parent clients. Although confirmation of a relationship would not be causal in nature, it would provide therapists with information on interpersonal parameters that impact on the divorce adjustment process of single parents.

Definition of Terms

Adjustment is the continuum of adaptive responses that circumscribe accurate, flexible, balanced, mutually rewarding interpersonal relationships (Learly, 1957). Adjustment may include parental interactions, familial and social interactions, and heterosexual relationships. Feelings of isolation, frustration, guilt, anger, love, happiness and self-worth may be experienced (Spanier & Casto, 1979).

Affiliation is a continuum of affective states in a relationship.

Affiliation ranges from friendly or loving to hostile (Leary, 1957).

Cohesion is the extent of emotional bonding family members have with one another and the degree of individual autonomy a person experiences in

the family system. It ranges from enmeshed to disengaged (Olson, Sprenkle & Russell, 1979, p. 5).

Crisis is a period of psychological upset which occurs as a person wrestles with problems temporarily beyond his/her capacity. It is caused when a person is confronted by a problem from which he/she cannot escape and cannot solve in the usual manner (Caplan, 1974).

Custodial single parent is an adult whose child or children live with him/her and he/she is the sole parent in the household.

Marital disruption, as used in this study, is either separation or divorce.

Marital dissolution, as used in this study, is divorce.

Separation is marital partners living at separate residences, either judicially defined or mutually defined by the spouses.

Social support is information that (1) leads an individual to believe that he/she is cared for and loved; (2) leads an individual to believe that he/she is esteemed and valued; (3) leads an individual to believe that he/she belongs to a network of communication and obligation (Cobb, 1976).

Support system is the interpersonal network of which people are a part and which is a potential source of crucial support. It is the configuration of those networks, the conditions under which they can be drawn upon, and the obligations and costs their use incurs (Perlin & Schooler, 1978).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Divorce has steadily increased since the turn of the century (Norton & Glick, 1979). As a consequence, the number of single parents has risen and the study of their adjustment has increased proportionally. One tenet has been the study of custodial parents. Recent evidence (Hetherington et al., 1975) indicates that a major factor in parental adjustment to marital disruption is the relationship to former spouse. This study incorporates the evaluation of a component of that relationship, affiliation with former husband. In evaluating adjustment from an interpersonal perspective, adjustment is addressed as a function of current social support, current affiliation with former husband, perceived cohesion of the marital system and various demographic parameters.

A number of studies have addressed adjustment to marital disruption. Literature that focuses on divorce, relationships between former spouses prior to and after separation, social support after separation and demographic variables will be reviewed. This literature review is divided into three categories: (1) stages of adjustment, (2) major studies and (3) secondary studies. For the purpose of this study, research studies are major if they are seminal to the study of divorce, have large samples or are longitudinal in nature. Studies are

considered secondary if they have small samples and/or deal indirectly with issues germane to this review.

This review will focus on system interaction patterns including past and current patterns with husband, and social support patterns. A system model looks at an individual in terms of the pattern or system in which she/he functions. Divorcing is an exogeneous crisis (Caplan, 1974) or an adaptive crisis (Lazarus, 1976) and the social system of the individual is seen as a major factor in the resolution of such a crisis (Umana et al., 1980). The social system of the individual experiencing separation and divorce consists of the former husband, children, significant others and organizational supports. The social system that did exist, i.e. the marriage, has been destroyed. Yet systems theory posits that individuals and systems have a need to maintain homeostasis. The individual system and the interpersonal system will try to restore homeostasis if they are disrupted (Umana et al., 1980, p. 21). Since individuals are more open to external influences during an after a crisis, there is the potential to restore equilibrium by changing the interpersonal environment to meet homeostatic needs.

Systems theory assumptions that are germane to this review include

1. Effective social support is provided to an individual in a variety of different manners.
2. Interaction between the personality of the individual and disruption of the system (separation and/or divorce) occur in a social framework.
3. An individual's maintenance of homeostasis involves correcting ineffective or insufficient patterns within her/his social system.

4. The goal of intervention is to change patterns of interaction so that those patterns meet individual system needs (Umana et al., 1980, p. 84).

5. Social support acts to decrease crisis and maintain individual homeostasis (Caplan, 1981).

6. Divorce is a neutral event that derives its meaning from its system context (Sprey, 1979, p. 152).

Stages of Adjustment

Several authors have looked at the stages of divorce (see Table 1). Overall, the models are congruent with one another. Differences between models are generally in terms of points of emphasis and on the start and end points of the process. Models include Weiss's (1975) and Levy and Joffe's (1977) three-phase models of marital separation; Kessler's (1975) seven stages of emotional adjustment, Weisman's (1975) five stages of crisis; Bohannon's (1971) six stations of divorce, Smart's (1977) seven ego development stages, and Spanier and Casto's (1979) two phases of adjustment model. While there is limited empirical basis for stages (Hackney & Ribordy, 1980; Jackson, 1979; Spivey & Scherman, 1980), all of the models are based on clinical observations and there is general consensus.

Typical of several models is Weiss's (1979) three-phase divorce process model. The first is the shock phase which is a brief period of shock and numbness denial where normal routines are maintained. There may be a sense of unreality. Weiss feels that most individuals, however, directly enter the transition phase where both individual and relationship patterns are disrupted. This is typified by severe

Table 1. Comparison of Separation and Divorce Adjustment Stages

Time Sequence	Authors and Stages					
	Bohannon (1970a)	Herrman (1974)	Kressler (1975)	Levy/Joffe (1977)	Smart (1979)	Spanier/Casto (1979)
Before Separation	Station I: Emotional Divorce	Stage I: Denial Stage II: Anger	Stage I: Disillusion- ment Stage II: Erosion Stage III: Detachment	Stage I: Denial Love of Love	Stage I: Trust vs. Mistrust Stage II: Autonomy vs. Shame & Doubt	Stage I: Adjustment to marital dissolution Stage I: Denial Stage II: Loss and Depression
Separation		Stage III: Bargaining Stage IV: Depression	Stage IV: Physical Separation	Stage I Separation	Stage III: Initiative vs. Guilt	Stage III: Anger and Ambiva- lence
After Separation Legal Divorce	Station II: Legal Divorce Economic Divorce		Stage V: Mourning		Stage IV: Industry vs. Inferi- ority	Stage IV: Reorienta- tion of life style and identity
Station IV: Co-parental Divorce						

Continued

Table 1. Continued.

	Bohannon (1970a)	Herrman (1974)	Kressler (1975)	Levy/Joffe (1977)	Smart (1979)	Spanier/Casto (1979)	Weiss (1975)	Wiseman (1975)
Good Adjustment	Station V: Community Divorce	Stage V: Acceptance	Stage VI: Recovering A. Second Adoles- cence B. Hard Work	Stage II: Individu- ation	Stage V: Identity vs. Role Confusion	Stage II: Adjustment to a new life style	Stage III: Recovery (Persist- ence of attach- ment)	Stage V: Acceptance and new level of function- ing
	Station VI: Psychic Divorce			Stage III: Reconnec- tion	Stage VI: Intimacy vs. Isolation			
					Stage VII: Generativity vs. Stagna- tion			
					Stage VIII: Ego Integrity vs. Despair			

*Adapted from Salts (1979).

emotional reactions reflected in mood swings, inability to make decisions or in contrast, a sense of excitement and perhaps frantic behavior. Eventually decisions are made and a more coherent, stable pattern of life is developed. Weiss feels that this period lasts about one year in the normal pattern of adjustments and is followed by the phase of recovering. In the recovery period an individual appears as organized and stable as others; however, there are still aspects of self-doubt and frailty. Resilience increases with time and the separated and divorced will again feel as comfortable as they are able to.

Bohannon (1971) is unique in that he separates divorce into six experiences which may overlap and may occur in different orders.

- (1) Emotional divorce is the withdrawal of emotional involvement and generally has its onset before separation and continues for a period. It is perceived as a punishment of "deselection" (p. 37).
- (2) Legal divorce is the final judicial decree that does not address emotions.
- (3) Economic divorce happens when spouses establish separate households and finances with intervening issues of alimony and child support.
- (4) Coparental divorce is the separation of parents from one another but not from the child. It is the separation of the parent and spouse roles.
- (5) Community divorce is when there is a disengagement from former bonds with couple friends and the development of new communities, typically with other divorced persons.
- (6) Psychic divorce deals with the development of autonomy of self from the former spouse. It is the most difficult and the most potentially constructive aspect of divorce according to Bohannon.

Spanier and Casto (1979) are not as specific as the others in their description of stages, yet their model is the most effective for

separating the major tenets of the overall process for parents. They identify two adjustment phases: (1) adjustment to marital dissolution and (2) adjustment to a new life style. They evaluate Bohannon's (1971) six stations within each of their adjustment phases.

General evaluations of these adjustment models are in conflict. Salts (1979) concludes that divorce fits into a developmental framework and that the models discussed can be integrated. She states that while some models are more applicable to counseling, they are not in conflict and are all appropriate as a framework for research on marital disruption. Price-Bonham and Balswick (1980), on the other hand, see several limitations in regard to the concepts of divorce adjustment and states of adjustment. They include (1) lack of definition and consistent measures; (2) lack of empirical research on adjustment stages; (3) cyclical and often overlapping stages (p. 228). Spanier and Casto's (1979) model is the least open to these criticisms. Therefore, this review will use the Spanier and Casto (1979) model and the focus will be on the adjustment to being single again phase of the divorce process. It is in this phase that the crisis is generally seen to be over and more permanent patterns are established. It is these patterns that appear to have long-term impact (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980).

Divorce legally ends the relationship between spouses; it does not end their interaction. This is especially true for couples with children (Bohannon, 1970; Goode, 1956; Hunt & Hunt, 1977; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). While parents have "an irreversible, indissoluble relationship to each other" (Mead, 1971, pp. 120-121) it is not necessary and imperative for former partners to disengage from one

another (Hunt & Hunt, 1977). Divorce adjustment models do not present a clear picture for divorcing individuals as to how former spouses should interact when their bonds are not fully severed (Rose & Price-Bonham, 1973). While Jesse Bernard suggests that indifference is seen as appropriate regardless of actual feelings of bitterness or love (Bernard, 1956, p. 202), others (Goode, 1956; Hunt, 1966) suggest that the relationship is poorly defined and unclear. This lack of definition of the former spouse relationship leads to confusion for individuals. For some, there can be uncertainty as to what is meant by good adjustment between former partners. For others, the confusion can make the adjustment more difficult (Bohannon, 1970). The ambiguity of what adjustment entails as it is reflected in interactions with a former spouse has not been investigated as the focus of any study. Divorcing for parents suggests both moving into a new life of singleness with a new group and altering a sense of self within the old life pattern of parenthood. Divorcing has components of threat, loss and challenge and responses of anxiety, depression and new modes of problem solving. Our culture supports a variety of healthy responses to a divorce crisis. One is to experience personal growth allowing for reexamination of sexual identity, relationships, values and role models (Wiseman, 1975). Another is to find individuals who have had similar experiences and to seek their company and support (Putney, 1981). A third is to evaluate past relationship with husband and to form a new relationship based on shared parenting but not shared partnering and to reorient the relationship. All three responses are components of the adjustment to being single for parents.

Major Studies

There are four major studies that deal with divorce and adjustment after marital disruption, and post-marital relationships of ex-spouses. The first comprehensive study on divorced mothers was Goode's After Divorce published in 1956 and republished in 1965 as Women in Divorce. He looked at causes and process of marital disorganization as well as demographic factors and postdivorce relationship between former partners. The second major study was Weiss' Marital Separation published in 1975 and Going It Alone: The Family Life and Social Situation of the Single Parent (1979). Weiss based his theoretical and anecdotal books on a series of interviews with members of Parents Without Partners, an organization for the formerly married. In the mid 70's, Hetherington and her colleagues published a series of articles based on their two-year longitudinal study of children and divorce. Finally, in 1980, Wallerstein and Kelly published the findings of their five-year study in Surviving the Breakup: How Children and their Parents Cope with Divorce.

While initial work on divorce was published in the 1930's (Lichtenberger, 1931; Waller, 1967), the first major research was done by Goode in 1956. Good (1956) studied a random sample of 425 divorced mothers ranging in age from 20 to 38 in Detroit. Using an in-depth structured interview technique, he asked subjects who had been single from 2 to 26 months to report retrospectively on their reactions to their divorce.

Goode (1956) presents a strong argument for the validity of his retrospective data in that he is researching the "adjustment which the spouse made to the reality as she saw it and sees it" (p. 25). In

evaluating the viability of questioning only the wife and not the husband, he argues that interest lies in her "problems as she experienced them" (Goode, 1956, p. 25).

Although Goode (1956) looked at demographic and social variables during marriage and during divorce adjustment phases, his initial goal was to evaluate factors associated with trauma. He defined trauma as an emotional disturbance that precipitated disorganization in habits and role obligations. He measured trauma using seven behavioral indices including sleep disturbance, drinking, smoking and decreased work efficiency. He concluded that the most stressful time and the major delineator between pre-divorce and post-divorce is the time of final separation. His trauma index has been used extensively in subsequent research.

Goode (1956) looked at a variety of parameters concerning marriage including classifications of affect, harmony, authority and home life in the marriage. He expected these factors to affect the post-divorce experience but found no systematic relationship between themes of conflict in the marriage and the trauma index. While marital happiness and marital conflict were studied, marital stability is only briefly mentioned and he states that marital patterns need not be outlined systematically (Goode, 1956, p. 7-8).

In his review of post-divorce adjustment, Goode (1956) suggests that the terms are value laden and difficult to define. His sociological perspective leads him to a definition that encompasses 1) the problems an individual has and 2) what she does about them. The adjustment process "is one by which a disruption of role sets and patterns, and of existing social relations, is incorporated into the individual's life

pattern, such that the roles accepted and assigned do not take the prior divorce into account as the primary point of reference" (p. 19).

Goode (1956) states that ex-spouses make legitimate demands on one another--she for child support and he for visitation--and that the parent-child relationship is the basis for continued contact (pp. 313-314). He accepts respondents answers about attitudes toward their former spouses but speculates that there were probably claims of "indifference that in actuality had a more definitive attitude" (Goode, 1956, p. 288). He concludes, however, that this bias does not affect direction of forces but rather degree of those attitudes.

Goode (1956) looked at women's ties with their former husband based on a variety of measures. Using limited descriptive factors, such as being in love, he looked at current emotional involvement in relation to prior degree of trauma and found that current positive feelings toward ex-husband were associated with high or medium trauma of divorce. Affective measures, based on single responses, included intensity of contact with ex-husband, attitude toward ex-husband or social adjustment, and desire to punish ex-husband. Goode (1956) also analyzed other factors including time since separation, level of social activity, current relationships status and regularity of child support payments using quasi-panel techniques of cross tabulations. In general, he concludes that divorce does not sever the emotional relationship between former spouses. Specific findings include the following:

- (1) Few subjects had strong feelings of wanting to punish their ex-husband and these feelings were not significantly affected by time.

(2) Attitudes of former spouses are congruent with the women's perceptions and the attitudes do not shift significantly after one year of separation.

(3) When evaluating intensity of contact and time since separation, a) time does not affect the high (positive) contact group but does increase the proportion of the negative contact group and b) the reverse is true with the low contact group.

(4) Negative attitudes toward ex-husbands correlate with not dating steadily, few social contacts, and irregular child support payments.

Goode (1956) defines overall social adjustment as an integration of the divorce experience into the total life experience in a manner that a woman functions based on her new position rather than on her former position (p. 241). He evaluates friendship, opportunities for meeting people and dating activities and finds that religion, race and age have no effect. He concludes that these parameters of social adjustment have a complex interrelationship (p. 266).

Goode looked at a variety of characteristics of those who divorce. He found differences due to region, age, race and class. He found no differences due to education.

Robert S. Weiss' two books, Marital Separation (1975) and Going it Alone: The Family Life and Social Situation of the Single Parent (1979) and several articles (1973, 1976a, 1976b) investigate the separation/divorce experience. Definitely qualitative in nature, they are based on discussions and interviews with Parents Without Partners (PWP) members, Seminars for the Separated participants solicited from newspaper ads and referrals, subjects in a series of studies at the

Laboratory of Community Psychiatry, Harvard Medical School, and a snowball approach beginning with a few persons known to him and proceeding to their friends and friends of their friends.

Weiss sees separation as an incident in the relationships of spouses, rather than an ending of that relationship. It is a critically important incident to be sure; an incident that ushers in fundamental changes in the relationship, but it is not an ending (1975, p. 83). He writes of the persistence of marital bonds and gives examples of bonds that range from collusion to companionship and good friendship to hostility. In his discussion of the postmarital relationship (1975, p. 112-113), Weiss reports three general categories of organization: friendly and affectionate, distrustful and filled with animosity, and a mixture of affects. He concludes that, in general, there is increased disengagement over time but underlying bonds remain strong and distinct from other interpersonal bonds (1975, p. 125).

He suggests that a new community, or support system, is established. The new network may be less interconnected but is generally reasonably satisfactory. Friends tend to be more varied, with increasing time being spent with other separated and divorced individuals. While they may not be any closer than old relationships with married couples, there is situational match. He found (1976) four potentially continuing sources of distress which could be met by other singles: a sustaining community, similarly situated friends, support for a sense of worth, and new emotional attachments. PWP provides a complex of support systems to single parents, yet only a small number of eligibles become involved. Weiss speculates this may relate to social class, lack of need, lack of desire to participate, or other coping

strategies. A cross-sex relationship may also become a significant factor in the social system.

Weiss (1975) evaluates recovery from divorce as having two phases. The transition phase of approximately a year is working through the grieving process. The recovery or reorganization phase is the re-establishing of a stable life pattern and resilient identity which ends one to three years later. Mood swings decrease and there is the appearance of an organized and assured person.

Parents' linkage continues but a sense of partnership and integrated effort toward a communal goal does not continue. Former partners are a continuing presence in the lives of people who are still parents but no longer partners (Weiss, 1979, p. 133). Partnership is ended even if only one parent feels that way although Weiss found some parents "despite separation, do maintain some vestige of partnership" (1979, p. 134). He explores changes in relationships as well as persistent patterns: a domineering spouse becomes a domineering ex-spouse, a thoughtful spouse becomes a thoughtful ex-spouse. He writes that there is a continuation of relating patterns and a routinization of the relationship yet does not elaborate on its impact.

"Single parents' emotions about those to whom they have been married tend to be persistent, deepseated and mixed" (1979, p. 148) even though they tend to communicate only a few times a month at most. Weiss concludes that ties and patterns persist. Positive affect may be based on a sense of familial ties and special attachment feelings. Negative affect in the form of wariness seems to persist. He states that mothers base negative emotions on fathers' obligations to be "good fathers" and see their children regularly, be loving and attentive, be a worthy model

and provide child support. Weiss indicates that conflict between parents can be managed by quarreling, by avoidance, or by adaptation and compromise (1979, p. 159).

Weiss suggests that single parents' need for social support is greater than for other adults in that a head of a family needs the help of others. "All forms of assistance--advice, relief, availability in emergencies--that a married person could expect of a spouse, must be sought . . . outside the home" (1979, p. 167). Parents, siblings, married friends, divorced friends, single parent friends, confidants, neighbors and acquaintances can all provide a sense of support, a feeling of acceptance and an opportunity to match experiences. He discusses the re-establishment of community as necessary for a satisfactory life (1975, p. 244). Networks are based on activities or to meet others, called supplementary communities. These have continuity despite membership turnover and include PWP and church singles groups. Members have shared concerns and specialized interests and needs. It appears, however, that lasting cross-sex attachments develop through extending the social network rather than searching for a new partner (1975, p. 250-251). He cites Hunt and Hunt's (1977) estimate that over 75% are dating in the first year of separation and 90% after one year.

Hetherington and her colleagues (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1976, 1977, 1978) conducted a more recent major study on the aftermath of divorce. They conducted the first major study that (1) was longitudinal, (2) was based on familial interaction, and (3) was cognizant of the importance of mother-father post-divorce patterns. They looked at 96 white, middle-class families--half divorced and half intact. Their multimethod, multimeasure research had as a goal "to

examine family responses to the crisis of divorce and then examine patterns of family reorganization over the two-year period following divorce" (Hetherington et al., 1978, p. 151). Measures included structured parent interviews, home and laboratory observations and a personality scale battery. Support systems, social, emotional and heterosexual relationships and quality of relationship with former spouse were some of the assessments. These were rated based on the structured interviews. Although repeated measure anovas, multiple regression and correlational analyses were performed on the quantitative data, Hetherington et al. report the findings by combining the different procedures used for data collection. While she looks at both parents and children, only her results concerning divorced adults will be reviewed here.

Hetherington et al. found differences between divorced and intact couples on self-concept and emotional adjustment. However, these differences dropped markedly between one and two years following divorce. Peak stress for the parent-child relationship seems to occur one year after divorce. While this is not generalized by the authors as overall stress level, these findings lend support to the concept that there is a change following one year of divorce. They found male and female differences. Males experienced greater initial changes and mothers had more long-lasting effects. It was only found that identity and self-concept problems were greater for older parents (mean age of mothers was 27.2 and for fathers, 29.6). They do not, however, report their definition of older or the age range of their subjects.

They found males and females similar in their desires for emotional intimacy. The availability of an intimate relationship correlated with

satisfaction, competency and happiness regardless of gender or time since divorce for subjects rated above the mean for intimacy in relationships.

When evaluating interactions between divorced partners, she found that, at two months, 66% of their exchanges involved conflict. Time decreased this conflict. She does not present findings about the relationship over time or compared to prior interactions. The relationship between former spouses was evaluated on the basis of support and agreement between parents in dealing with the child. She found that support and agreement between parents decreased the disruption in family functioning and that these families re-stabilized by one year after the divorce. Hetherington found that a positive attitude toward the former spouse and other positive parameters were associated with better family functioning. Disagreement and negative attitudes between parents were associated with poor familial functioning (p. 314).

While support systems (extended family, friends) were found to be related to the mother's effectiveness, they were not as salient as her relationship to her ex-husband. Only 12% of the sample obtained professional therapy or counseling, a component of support. In addition, she found no significant stress due to economic factors although this may be due to a middle class sample.

In the analysis of social life and interpersonal relationships, female subjects reported limited recreational opportunities, restricted social activities, and decreased adult contacts. This was mediated if the women worked. Although social life increased during the two years following the divorce, it never reached the level of married women. At

two years after the divorce, the sexual activity level was the same for married and divorced subjects.

Hetherington et al. (1977) infer that intimacy in relationships, in the Sullivanian sense (1956, p. 312), correlates strongly with happiness and feelings of competency. They argue that intercourse and intimacy frequently occur together. They conclude that a desire for intimacy is pervasive and the formation of intimate relationships is associated with positive adjustment.

Hetherington et al. (1977) examined trends over the two years of the study utilizing several parameters. Measure of family disorganization covering degree of role structure and coping with household tasks found disorganization highest at one year and still higher than intact families at two years. However, the focus of this parameter was on parent-child interaction rather than individual disorganization or between parents.

Emotional adjustment of the mothers was lowest for the first year following the divorce and remained lower for mothers of sons. They also scored lower on socialization than married subjects throughout the three sets of measures.

At two months after the divorce, conflict was the focus of the relationship between former spouses. Typical areas of conflict included financial support, visitation, and intimate relations with others. Over time, the conflict decreased. At one year, however, over half of the sample thought the divorce might have been a mistake and at two years a quarter of the sample still felt that.

While Hetherington and her colleagues were conducting their study, Wallerstein and Kelly (1974, 1980) were involved in another major

longitudinal project. The Children of Divorce Project (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1980) studied 60 families with 131 children between the ages of three and nineteen. Families were obtained from sources ranging from newspapers, schools and agencies to ministers and friends. Subjects were seen individually approximately six times in the crisis or divorce decision, once twelve to eighteen months later and once five years later. It is, at the present time, the largest and longest longitudinal study of the divorce experience. All families initially came to a six week prevention and research program for families in the midst of divorce. The 290 item semi-structured interview was based on a framework that views divorce as an individual psychological experience without the structure of an agreed upon normative style of coping (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, p. 481-482). Wallerstein and Kelly accept the fundamental hypothesis that divorce is an appropriate social remedy of serious marital distress, it is reasonable to ask if the divorce has succeeded in its social purpose or if it has failed. If it has succeeded, then for whom, and after what period of time? If it has failed, for whom, and in what ways? (1980, p. 186). While only frequencies are reported, statistically significant relationships are identified. They found that the males and females in their sample regarded their marriage differently. The only similarity was the complaint of needs that were unmet and unacknowledged by the partner.

The decision of couples with children to divorce infrequently occurs by mutual consent. They found that regardless of who initiated the divorce, the differences between the partners over the decision set the tone for subsequent interactions (1980, p. 17). Hostility between partners was found to be the hallmark of the separation period for more

than 80% of the females, with females clearly more hostile than males. More women were angry and the intensity of the anger was greater. They also found that the majority of women had no real dates or social life and that this correlated inversely with age.

A group labeled "embittered-chaotic" by the researchers (about 20% of the females) were opposed to the divorce. They experienced intense hatred of their spouse. All aspects of the divorce provided an arena for the expression of their rage. The authors found this emotion functioned to ward off depression and had an organizing influence on the lives of these persons. Such rage was not affected by short-term interventions.

A follow-up 18 months after separation and one year after the initial interviews revealed extensive changes. Eighty percent of the women were legally divorced with most taking little note of the date regarding termination of marriage in psychological rather than legal terms. While over 25% of the women had moved, few had left the vicinity in a highly mobile area (the Bay area). This may have been due to mothers' sensitivity to their children's need for geographical closeness to their fathers, the area's good weather and the availability of low-cost, high-quality, post-secondary education (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980, p. 151).

More than half of the women were pleased with their lives including some who had had negative responses to the divorce a year prior. The bitterness of the separation period had decreased and partners were "more circumspect and restrained" (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980, p. 154) in their interactions. One third of the women no longer experienced any bitterness and no longer overtly expressed negative views about their

former husbands when their children were present. However, half of the women continued to express anger and made critical or disparaging comments about their husbands. This related to subjects with a prior history of serious psychological problems. Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) state that this is still a transition time as the individuals cope with their status of being single again. Divorced people have varied amounts of "unfinished emotional business" not exclusively the result of continued shared parenting.

A composite, "average" mother is moderately depressed and lonely, and somewhat anxious but increasingly generally happy and has an improved sense of well-being and competence. The authors found that a woman at this stage had rising self-esteem that was not consolidated and stabilized at this time.

Over 65% described themselves as lonely, about half of them painfully so. Their social life was seen as largely ungratifying and difficult. While social activities with other adults had increased, women complained about the lack of meaningful relationships with a degree of continuity. Of the sample, 20% had not dated and 40% had not been sexually active, and 20% had had sexual experiences outside any ongoing relationship.

Some (less than 25%) had made positive changes and adapted to the divorce. The authors state that these subjects had learned from their failed marriages and had a sense of closure on the divorce allowing them to feel like new individuals who had experienced profound personal growth. They perceived themselves as disengaged from a marriage that had been ungratifying and destructive.

Wallerstein and Kelly's (1980) final follow-up was conducted four to five years after their subjects' separation. While many factors unrelated to the divorce had occurred (remarriages, illnesses, tragedies), they evaluated the individuals in terms of the factors associated with the divorce. They suggest that findings at this stage are most likely to reflect more stable situations no longer directly linked to the separation crisis and outcomes are more likely to be enduring or chronic. Five year results include the 33% of the females who had remarried.

More than half the women saw the divorce as enhancing and beneficial. Who initiated the proceedings had less relevance at this point in time and women who had been against the divorce became aware of its rewards over time. Closure of the issue of divorce was seen in less than one third of the women and typically one ex-partner still viewed the divorce as an ongoing issue. Social class was not found to correlate with this sense of closure. Twenty percent of the women still had mixed reactions and another 20% continued to view their divorce as a negative experience with ongoing feelings of anger and/or loss. For this latter group, the divorce persisted as a central focus for thought and action.

Two thirds of the couples had continued communication four or more years after separation. The affect associated with the communication, however, varied from anger and hostility to friendliness. Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) conclude that parental communication can be classified in two categories: that with feelings of friendship and that with feelings of anger. The women tended to be more angry and less friendly than their former husbands. While loneliness continued to be of

concern, the women were not as acutely lonely as they had been. They did not have a "comfortable, reliable social life" (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980, p. 193).

Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) evaluate the impact of divorce in terms of resolution or change with serious problems. While there had not been any significant socioeconomic change since the initial post-separation period, they did find that over 50% of the women "arrived at better solutions for living their lives, and half this group had undergone striking and significant positive changes that appeared to have lifelong implications" (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980, p. 193). They concluded that the impact of divorce must be evaluated separately for each family member and what is successful for one person may not be considered successful for another.

The term "one-parent family" is an inaccurate one. Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) state that the child's relationship with both parents remains emotionally important over the five years of the study regardless of custody arrangements. They find the divorced family less adaptive psychologically and socially than the two-parent family. The primary custodial parent is found to be more vulnerable to stress but more limited in terms of supportive adults.

While adjustment outcome is related to interactions of factors, major components were found to be children's relationship to both parents and the quality of life in the divorced family.

Our findings regarding the centrality of both parents to the psychological health of children and adolescents alike leads us to hold that, where possible, divorcing parents should be encouraged and helped to shape postdivorce arrangements which permit and foster continuity in the children's relations with both parents. (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980, p. 311)

They conclude that decreased and disrupted parenting is the primary threat to the developmental and psychological health of children. This is not likely to occur if, with several factors, good parent-child relationships are maintained. Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) stress the need for additional guidance and information for concerned parents and the professionals they turn to for assistance. They also stress the need for parental interaction which permits parent-child relationships and the inter-parent arrangements to facilitate those relationships (p. 317-318).

Recent major research on divorce (Hetherington et al., 1975; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980) concludes that both parents are important to their children's adjustment. The interaction between parents and the mother's facilitation of parent-child communication are both viewed as variables in the adjustment process. Social support is seen as critical for single parents (Goode, 1956; Weiss 1975, 1979).

Secondary Studies

Interaction Patterns

Several studies either directly or indirectly address interaction patterns between spouses and former spouses. In general, divorce is viewed as a redefinition of a relationship rather than the termination of a pattern (Pais & White 1979, p. 272). Yet, while some scales have been developed that attempt to measure overall adjustment (Fisher, 1976; Raschke, 1977), there is little empirical research on the relationship between former spouses (Hess & Camara, 1979; Price-Bonham & Balswick,

1980). A review of divorce literature of the 1970's (Price-Bonham & Balswick, 1980) acknowledges an increasing recognition of the former spouse relationship but cites only two studies beyond the descriptive work of Weiss (1975), Hunt (1966) and Krantzler (1973). Both studies address the sexual interaction of ex-spouses soon after divorce and suggest that intercourse communicates double messages. These studies suggest that the affect between ex-spouses can be friendly and affectionate but this does not occur initially after separation.

When there is no clear model for interaction after divorce, the establishment of traditional patterns is hypothesized (Johnson, 1977). Yet while the relationship between parents has been shown to have an impact on adjustment by Hetherington et al. (1975, 1979), the pattern of marital interaction in relation to the pattern of post-marital interaction has received scant empirical attention.

Many theorists imply that reactions to a situation are similar from individual to individual (Weiss, 1976). Kressel, Jaffee, Tuchman, Watson and Deutsch (1980) are the only authors who question the unidimensional perspective of adjustment. Kressel et al. (1980) argue that the perception of "marital dissolution as an ordered series of 'stages' of psychological adjustment, more or less comparable from case to case" (p. 103) is not congruent with their data. Their goals were to look for themes in the resolution of interpersonal conflict. They interviewed and taped nine couples who experienced Structured Mediation plus five couples who were nonmediated. Different patterns of the divorce process were found. They state that "it was the systematic and patterned differences among our couples . . . rather than any one or two characteristics . . . that were most highly correlated with the nature

and outcome of the settlement process" (1980, p. 107). They found four patterns which they labeled enmeshed, disengaged, direct and autistic. Of relevance here is their finding that patterns correlated with differing levels of post-divorce adjustment. The best adjustment occurred in the disengaged type couples, somewhat less favorable adjustment occurred in the direct conflict group and worst adjustment occurred in the enmeshed and autistic groups. While their focus is on the mediation of divorce, there are implications in their findings that are germane to this proposed study. Kressel et al. (1980) suggest that different interventions are likely to be useful with different patterns of couple interactions. Subtypes in the divorce population based on interaction patterns may allow fuller answers to questions concerning postdivorce adjustment. While Goode (1956) looked at the one-sided divorce, he ignored the interactive aspects of familial and spousal patterns. Kressel et al. (1980) see the enmeshed and autistic patterns as sharing an inability of spouses to engage constructively. The qualitative difference of the postdivorce adjustment may also affect the children. They conclude that exploration of the relationship between the patterns of divorce and the preexisting partial patterns may be a valuable avenue for research.

One trend in divorce interaction research compares divorced and intact families. Hess and Camara (1979) compared 16 divorced families with 16 intact families. All the families were white, both parents worked and had a child between the ages of 9 and 11. Divorced families had been separated two to three years and legally divorced for one and one-half years. While the analysis of the interviews focused on child outcome measures, some aspects of the parental relationship are

reported. In the comparison of the two groups, there was more within group variation than between group variation on measures of child-related communication. Process variables such as parental harmony and parent-child relationship had a larger contribution to child outcomes than marital status. Such findings support the contention that interaction patterns have an ongoing post-divorce impact and are maintained. Analysis of the divorced group data revealed different styles of familial interaction: antagonism between parents but positive child relationships; antagonistic relations between all family members; and positive relations between all family members. Hess and Camara (1979) conclude that the level of discord between parents is not as important as the parent-child affective relationship yet they do not elaborate on the parental interaction that permits this.

Divorce interaction has been investigated within the framework of sex roles. In a series of studies (Brown, 1976; Brown & Manela, 1978; Brown, Perry & Harburg, 1977), 253 subjects were interviewed four months after they had contacted a county court marriage counseling service. The sample was 70% white; 81% were high school graduates; and all had at least one child under the age of 18. Brown (1976) found that the entire sample became significantly less traditional in sex role attitudes after they had been separated for four months. Less traditional can be viewed as meeting cohesive needs in less traditional ways or acceptance of this style of interaction.

She identifies different coping styles ranging from avoidance and passivity to mixed and instrumental. Coping is defined as mastery of the environment or what a person does to handle stressful demands (Lazarus, 1976). Of significance is that coping is categorized by

different styles which work for different people under certain circumstances. Coping styles are viewed as part of the adjustment process. A similar postulation is appropriate for degree of cohesion as a factor in the adjustment process. Research that looks at coping style or cohesion has implications for intervention. Such research may contribute to the body of information or intervention strategies which are more or less effective for different interaction styles (Brown, 1976, p. 178).

Brown and Manela (1978) explored the functional relationship between sex roles and coping with divorce based on the same data. They argue that attitudes that support independent actions and autonomy support positive postdivorce outcomes. Findings indicate that nontraditional sex role attitudes correlate with positive psychosocial adjustment ($p < .01$). They suggest that a "wife" role orientation discounts the legitimacy of her new role. The more she is psychologically involved in her marital ties, the more difficult her adjustment to new patterns. Patterns include traditionalist, adapter, survivor and developer. Assessment of marital problems is associated with positive adaptation to being single. Significant differences were found between black and white women (Brown et al., 1977) on amount of money and affection in the marriage and on certain attitudes toward divorce. Differences in overall adjustment between black and white women were also statistically significant. Black and white women did not differ in their degree of traditionality but did differ in the degree that traditionality had on their psychological outcomes in the divorce process.

These studies (Brown, 1976; Brown & Manela, 1978; Hess & Camara, 1979; Kressel et al., 1980) all look at patterns. While patterns are defined in different ways, there is consensus that there are pre-existing patterns and that patterns impact on style of adjustment. Nelson (1981), on the other hand, studied relationship as a moderator of adjustment. He used a sample of 15 women with children selected from over 100 court records (response rate at 43.9%). The women in his sample had been separated from 5 to 25 months (mean of 16.5 months) and had a mean age of 31.2 years. Current relationship with ex-husband was evaluated as a moderator of adjustment. Relationship was measured by five questions on support, court visits, agreement on child issues and how well she perceived they were getting along. Current relationship was found to moderate overall adjustment and age was a significant ($p < .01$) predictor of positive affect: the younger a woman was, the more she reported positive affect toward her ex-husband.

Attachment is the sociological construct often used in exploring interpersonal patterns. Attachment is defined as a bonding to the other that produces "feelings of at-homeness and ease when the other is present or, if not actually present, is felt to be accessible" (Weiss, 1975, p. 45). It has been inferred by the degree of distress following separation. In their study of attachment, Brown, Felton, Whiteman and Manela (1980) distinguish separation distress due to the inaccessibility of the attachment figure and generalized distress from change and stress which is independent of attachment dynamics (p. 304).

Attachment and cohesion are parallel concepts. They both address the issue of degree of focus or engagedness with the significant other. Brown et al. (1980) found that attachment and generalized distress were

related but distinct states ($r=.53$). Neither length of marriage nor length of separation was related to attachment. Attachment was positively related to amount of contact and negatively related to who initiated the separation; and number of children was negatively related to distress and age of youngest child related positively to distress. Children seem to be a resource rather than a stressor when comparing women with and without them. Their findings suggest that the degree of attachment and contextual factors (stressors and supports) affect marital separation. Differences in attachment due to sex were also found [higher for males], although this may be due to respondents selected from users of counseling services.

Spanier and Casto (1979) interviewed 50 individuals selected from a population of those who had either filed for or were divorced within the past two years. Subjects were males and females ranging in age from 21 to 65, with 34 respondents parents of 82 children. They, along with Weiss (1975) and Goode (1956), address the concept of attachment defined as feelings toward former spouse. They theorize that "the greater the attachment to the (former) spouse, the more difficult will be the adjustment to the separation" (Spanier & Casto, 1979, p. 220). This trend was substantiated, but not at a statistically significant level. While attachment and its impact was less than Weiss (1975) found, this may be due to the use of a random sample vs. subjects seeking professional help and a multiple session interview format eliciting deeper feelings.

Chiriboga and Thurnher (1980) looked at the impact of marital lifestyle on post separation adjustment. A total of 198 randomly selected males and females separated less than 8 months were interviewed

for 3 hours. While their focus was on sex role behaviors, some results are pertinent to this review. Sex differences were found in social relationships at $p < .05$. Measures of well-being or happiness during early separation stages correlated significantly with the way subjects reported they had lived while married (specifically having separate interests and friends). Older women (over 40), who are less likely to rely on their husbands for companionship, were happier overall during separation. Their results suggest that characteristics of the marital lifestyle may affect adjustment to separation. While they evaluated only traditional and nontraditional lifestyles in the context of marital structure, their research points to structural antecedents in adjustment.

Further analysis (Chiriboga & Cutler, 1978) was based on a modification of Goode's trauma scale, a symptoms check list and morale scales. Subjects were separated and were in some stage of the legal process prior to actual divorce. They found that the points of high trauma were final separation and the point just prior to the divorce decision. Again, this study also looks at when in the process the trauma was most pronounced rather than as a variable in adjustment or in relation to post divorce. They found different styles of coping with trauma and different trauma and relief points in the pre-divorce process. The data support the concepts of crisis resolution, stress reduction and adjusting to loss. It also supports different styles of coping which they label the Resolvers, the Resolved, the Somatizers and the Personal Crisis people (Chiriboga & Cutler, 1978, p. 103). They conclude that the whole process is traumatic and that men are more vulnerable than women on emotional indices. They did not find age to

affect the timing or severity of either trauma or relief-crisis or adjustment.

Cline and Westman (1971) studied 105 divorced families and found that 52% had hostile interactions that required at least one court intervention. In the two-year follow-up period, 31% had 2 to 10 interventions. They conclude that familial interactions continued over parenting roles and children's perpetuation of interaction between their parents. Identified patterns included hostile interactions about parenting roles, hostile conflict about other issues, children perpetuating their parents' interaction, alliances between one parent and the child against the other parent, and interaction perpetuated by the extended family. They found that each divorce tended to follow a particular pattern.

A recent study (Goldsmith, 1980) assessed 85 randomly selected white couples who had been divorced about one year and who had at least one child living with the mother. Interviews were conducted with both members of 44 former couples and with one member of 41 couples (8 males and 37 females whose spouse refused to participate). The both-member interviewed groups was older and better educated while the one-member interviewed group was more representative of the divorced population. Eight scales were constructed for this study, which, in part, assessed affect between former spouses as well as the frequency, quality and content of their relationships.

Goldsmith (1980) found no significant differences in mothers' and fathers' perceptions of the amount of involvement that they maintained with each other as parents ($p < .05$). Amount of contact ranged from over 50% who communicated at least once a week to 16% who did not

communicate at all. She also found no significant differences between males and females mean ratings on the quality of their parental relationship (support and conflict). While 75% described their relationships as stressful and conflictual, they also had perceptions of mutual support at least some of the time. Both males and females said they were more accommodating and supportive than their former spouse. There were no significant differences ($p < .05$) in feelings of attachment, caring, hostility and guilt between former spouses. Feelings reported ranged from extremely positive to extremely negative. What is interesting is the significant degree of agreement on perceptions of the relationship between former spouses. In addition, while patterns of relationship are alluded to by the author "a subgroup of former spouses perceive themselves as having developed high quality divorced coparenting relationships" (Goldsmith, 1980, p. 12) such patterns are not discussed or analyzed.

While women whose former husbands were and were not interviewed were similar, some significant differences were found. Former spouses who were not interviewed were reported to be less competent parents, spent less time with their children as "family" and the relationship quality was poorer. Goldman considers these as two "types" of couples that could be representative of the divorce population, but, again, does not elaborate on what she means by types.

The findings derived from these studies which address marital and postmarital parental interaction are inconsistent. These discrepancies are due to differences in definition and measurement of constructs. They may also be due to failure to control relevant variables. While there is lack of clarity on agreement between studies, there is some

consistent information. These studies confirm that there is a relationship between marital interaction and adjustment patterns and that adjustment is not unidimensional. Important control variables appear to include sex, age, race, number and age of children, financial or socioeconomic status and decision to divorce. While creating a new life style is consistently seen as crucial to overall adjustment (Spanier & Casto, 1979), the research on prediction factors relevant to the nature of that adjustment to former spouse appears scant.

Social Support

The information on the social support of women living in non-nuclear families is meager. While many researchers have operationalized the concept in a way that almost precludes single mothers having support (McLanahan, Wedemeyer & Adelberg, 1981), most studies on divorce evaluate social support in some manner. Some incorporate social support into an overall measure of adjustment (Fisher, 1976; Raschke, 1977), while others evaluate the relationship between social support and perceived stress (McCubbin, Joy, Comeau, Patterson & Needle, 1980). Social support is seen as a major dimension in the management of stress after divorce (McCubbin et al., 1980, p. 134). It has been hypothesized (Johnson, 1977) that, since our society does not provide a clear model for the separated/divorced, traditional patterns of interaction may surface within the social system. "Alternative affectional rewards" (Levinger, 1976, p. 42) combine with traditional patterns in the domain of social support. Dating and sexual activity have been included as part of the social support of the separated/divorced. While most formally marrieds have

been found to be sexually active (Hunt & Hunt, 1977), dating and sexual activity tend to have greater importance for males than females. In general, social support and satisfaction with the degree of social support have an effect for divorced women (Colletta, 1979).

Raschke (1977) evaluated the role of social participation in postseparation and postdivorce adjustment. With a sample of 277 Parents Without Partners members and guests, her sample overrepresented white, middle-class females. Based on her 273 item questionnaire, she found strong support for the hypothesis that those with high social interaction and/or involvement perceive themselves as having less stress. Sex and age correlate significantly with social support and stress (females and younger subjects participated less and experienced more stress). When controlling for sex and age, the relationship between social participation and stress remained statistically significant. She found that female social participation increased during the first year after separation, peaked during the second year, and then decreased to pre-separation levels. Women who had jobs as their principal income source participate more. She attributes this to added financial resources and more interpersonal contacts. In addition, the participation of females with children varied inversely to the number of children. Raschke's (1975) hypothesis on the positive correlation between social interaction and adjustment was supported in the study by Spanier and Casto (1979). Heterosexual relationships were also found to correlate positively with adjustment.

In another study (Raschke & Barringer, 1977) an additional 249 subjects were evaluated. Similarities between samples included level of education, length of marriage and size of community of

residence. These did not affect adjustment. However, differences between the two samples were found. In the additional group, neither age, number of children, nor church attendance affected stress level. Since Goode (1956) found longer marriage associated with greater trauma, the authors speculate that changes in societal attitudes toward divorce between 1948 and 1973 could cause this divergence. Their findings concur with Goode (1956) that higher dating activity significantly relates to lower stress.

Chiriboga, Coho, Stein and Roberts (1979) studies a random sample of 125 men (mean age of 36.3) and 285 women (mean age of 33.4) who had been separated less than eight months. They evaluated the relationship between divorce, perceived stress and social support using 3.5-hour interviews. They found that the majority of participants spoke to someone, most commonly spouse, counselor or relative. While there were no sex differences in rank ordering of support categories, the frequency and number of types of help of female helpseeking was significantly higher than for males. Higher educated women tend to seek support with their spouse and friends while the less educated talk to their children or doctors. As would be expected, the greater the perceived stress the more likely subjects are to seek help. Patterns of support are, however, different by sex with females seeking support from spouse, friends, doctors, counselors, and males seeking support from relatives and friends. When finances, more children and better education are coupled with high stress, the scope of social support is increased.

Chiriboga et al. (1979) conclude that perceived stress plays an important role in determining the scope of supports. Although other approaches to the study of stress rarely take perceptions into account

(Holmes and Rahe, 1967 for example), studies which consider perceptions have disclosed a powerful factor. They suggest that "the researcher/clinician who is interested in helpseeking behavior should not automatically assume that divorce is equally distressing for all. Gradations in perceptions of stress exist, and have a marked impact on how the individual attempts to cope with the divorce" (Chiriboga et al., 1979, p. 134).

Findings from Albrecht's (1980) random sample in eight western states differ. His sample of over 800 participants (mean age 45.1 years; mean age at divorce 30.9 years) included 70% who were parents. He found that, while social participation levels tended to decrease for the year following divorce, there were no long-term changes when compared to pre-divorce levels. Thirty-nine percent of the females reported more participation and 89% reported the same or more contact with relatives. Figures for males were less significant.

Granvold, Pedler and Schellie (1979) studied lifestyle, which they classified as sex role expectancy, and its impact on female post-divorce adjustment using a nonrandom sample of 53 women (mean age 33). Forty-nine percent were separated over one year with the mean time since separation of the sample 18 months. Seventy-two percent were parents. Marital dysfunction was most often attributed to communication, family responsibilities and roles, and lifestyle/social/recreational activities. Being older, being married longer and having a better social support system correlated with adjustment. The authors discuss the limitations of their research which include the use of self-selected volunteer subjects, the subjective nature of the instruments and the difficulty in defining and measuring adjustment.

Spanier and Casto's (1979) evaluation of field notes cited earlier in this review concluded that the majority of social networks were supportive. Although coupled friends became less close and new friendships were developed, they found that the degree to which problems continue seems to depend on how well a person adjusts to a new life style.

McLanahan, Wedemeyer, and Adelberg (1981) interviewed 45 mothers, ranging in age from 22 to 52, who had been divorced from 4 months to 20 years. They found three social network patterns: family of origin network, extended network of friends; and conjugal network with a key male that included either relatives and old friends or mostly new friends. While the networks varied both in form and in degree of closeness, each type appeared to be supportive for different groups of women. Network patterns were also able to shift as the women shifted their roles. Their data indicated that friendship ties may be as supportive and intimate as relationships with significant males. In addition, this study suggests that an adaptive support network depends both on the availability of friends and/or relatives and on the fit between the woman and the support.

Research cited by Anspach (1976) asks what marital factors lend themselves to easy or difficult adjustments after divorce (1976, p. 7). Everly (1977) found that familial and friend social support is related to overall adjustment. What is relevant to this review is that this is one of the few instances where marital antecedents to divorce adjustment are investigated.

While acknowledging the impact of social systems, none of these studies uses an independent measure of social support. Such measures

have grown from the more general body of research on stress and coping (McCubbin et al., 1980). However, the findings on social support of both the major and the secondary studies are generally consistent. Social support is a major component of adjustment. Important variables that affect support include sex, age, and length of marriage.

While parallels have been made between loss of spouse due to death and divorce (Weiss, 1975) widows and divorced women have different experiences (Kitson, Lopata, Holmes and Meyering, 1980). Results of a study (Kitson et al., 1980) based on samples drawn from court records and random samples found significant differences in attitudes about social relationships, intimacy, and feeling like a "fifthwheel." Divorced women felt more restricted in relationships with others and would seek and receive less support. This is reconciled with the findings of Holmes and Rahe (1967) by suggesting the difference is due to "votes" on impact rather than actual impact. They also found significant differences in how they describe their former husbands: divorced women perceive their husbands as friendlier and more useful and honest but colder and crueler. While many of their divorced subjects alluded to a new form of relationship, there was little evidence to support either this or the opposite, i.e. that the relationship maintained strong elements of its old form.

Demographic Data

Chiriboga, Roberts and Stein (1978) studied a random sample of 309 individuals who had filed for divorce. Subjects ranged in age from 20 to 79.

They conclude that there are sex and age differences in terms of well-being during separation. While their male subjects were significantly less happy than their female respondents, the women reported a rate of unhappiness that compares with national data for women in the general population. In contrast, their men were about twice as unhappy as nationwide population samples. Age differences were also evident, with those over 50 lowest in well-being. The other statistically significant factor was membership in a minority group. Perceived or objective membership was associated with greater unhappiness for women under 50 and not for other groups. Other factors that have at best a moderate, but not statistically significant impact are length of marriage, education, work and finances. Their findings support differences due to sex, age and race and indicate that these are factors in marital disruption and are intervening variables in divorce adjustment.

Jackson (1979) found several demographic/sociological characteristics influenced the divorce adjustment process in his study of 119 subjects from community groups, church groups, and clinician referrals. These factors were age, length of time married, age when married, and employment status. Age of children has been found to affect trauma (Goode, 1956). It has been suggested that older children allow parents to be less involved with each other. The maturity and social skills of the children allow them to decide how and when they interact with a parent by increasing the parent-child communications while potentially decreasing parent-parent interactions (Kushner, 1965).

Differences between male and female adjustment have been found (Albrecht, 1980). Albrecht's (1980) random sample from eight western

states had a mean age of 45.1 and 70% had children. The mean age at divorce was 30.9 years. Percentage results indicate that 71% of the females vs. 62% of the males saw the present as the best time for themselves and their children; 3% of the males and females found the present as the most difficult period; 92% of the females and 90% of the males consider the present better than the immediate post-divorce period.

Research on the costs and benefits of being a divorced mother was conducted by Kohen, Brown and Feldberg (1979). Thirty mothers who had been separated or divorced from one to five years were interviewed for an average of 3.5 hours. These women were single parents whose situation had become stable but not necessarily permanent. Because of the time span, subjects were felt to be no longer in crisis. Subjects were located through agencies, single parent organizations and contacts of the authors. This is the only study that evaluates female single parents at least one year after the stressor event. While many findings agree with Goode (1956) and others, lack of agreement is attributed to elimination of respondents who were still adjusting to the first year of singlehood. One third of their subjects saw their current single parent lifestyle as "different" with good and bad aspects when compared to married motherhood. Over half (56%) found their current situation "easier." Financial situations were significantly different. The average drop in income was over 50%. What is significant, however, is that over 50% of their sample who had less income said they felt better off because they had control of the financial resources available.

There are consistent findings for certain demographic variables in both the random and non-random studies. They include sex, economic and

educational variables, and initiation of separation or divorce (Bloom, Asher and White, 1978; Kraus, 1979). There are inconsistent findings on whether number of children affects adjustment (Kitson & Raschke, 1981). Findings tend to suggest some association but this may be due to various other factors such as financial resources, role of father and attitudes towards children.

Age and length of marriage are difficult to disengage. Findings tend to show that older women have more distress (Kitson & Raschke, 1981) but there are contradictory results (Granvold et al., 1979). Other factors may include dating, having been in a post-marital intimate relationship, and race. While it is difficult to determine the stressor event of divorce (McCubbin et al., 1980), there is general agreement that the highest trauma is at the time of separation and that the initial post-separation year is distinct.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study investigated the adjustment of female single parents to marital disruption on the measures of perceived marital cohesion, affiliation with former husband, current social support and various demographic parameters.

Subjects

The population for this study consisted of Caucasian females over the age of 25, who were custodial parents of at least one child, had been separated or divorced at least one year, and who resided in Alachua County, Florida. According to the most recently published demographic statistics (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980), 6.6% of all the females in the United States in 1979 were divorced. The same publication noted that for the group of white women between the ages of 25 and 44, over 23 million women, more than 10% of the ever-married female population, were divorced. In the same year, over 6% of the white children lived with a divorced parent compared to under 3% a decade earlier.

The divorce rate per 1000 population in 1978 for the nation was 5.2. The rate for the state of Florida was 7.5 in 1979 and for the city of Gainesville it was 7.7 (Thompson, 1980). These figures reveal only those women who are legally divorced and do not include separation.

While statistics on divorce in Florida and in the city of Gainesville reflect national trends, the rates have been higher than the national average since 1975. Thus, while trends are consistent, the geographic area from which subjects for this study were drawn reports higher divorce rates. This may reflect in the generalizability of the results.

The sample of women meeting the established criteria were obtained by contacting singles organizations in the community. These included Parents without Partners, four church related organizations of different denominations, divorce adjustment seminars, women's support groups and women's organizations.

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses was tested:

- H_0 No significant relationship will exist between adjustment and perceived marital cohesion, social support, affiliation with former husband, age, number of children, social and economic status, length of marriage, length of time since separation and regularity of child support payments.

Variables

Perceived marital cohesion, social support and affiliation with former husband were the independent psychological variables measured. Marital cohesion is defined as the emotional bonding spouses have with one another and the degree of individual autonomy a person experiences in the marital system (Olson et al., 1979). An enmeshed family is at the extreme of high cohesion which results in an individual who is extremely bonded and has minimal autonomy. A disengaged family is at the low extreme and results in an individual with low bonding and high autonomy from the family (Olson, Bell & Porter, Note 1). Perceived marital cohesion is the score for cohesion as measured by the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Scale, FACES (Olson et al., Note 1). Social support is considered to be information included in at least one of the following categories: (1) information that leads one to believe that she/he is cared for and loved, (2) information that leads one to believe that she/he is esteemed and valued, (3) information that leads one to believe that she/he belongs to a network of mutual obligation and communication (Cobb, 1976). Social support is the score for social support as measured by A Short Scale for the Evaluation of Social Support (ASSESS). Affiliation is the continuum of affective states between formerly married parents. Affiliation is the perception of interpersonal affect ranging from hostility to love or affection (Leary, 1957). Current affiliation with the former husband is the affiliation score as measured by Form I of the Interpersonal Check List, ICL (LaForge & Suzcek, 1955).

The dependent variable in this study is the subject's adjustment. Adjustment is defined as the continuum of adaptive responses that

circumscribe accurate, flexible, balanced, mutually rewarding interpersonal relationships and behaviors (Leary, 1957). Adjustment is measured by the Interpersonal Check List, Form II.

Description of the Assessment Instruments

Five instruments were utilized in this study: The Family Adaptability and Cohesion Scale; The Interpersonal Check List, Form I; The Interpersonal Check List, Form II; A short Scale for the Assessment of Social Support; and a Demographic Information Form.

The Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scale (FACES) was initially developed by David Olson and his associates in 1978 and revised in 1982 (See Appendix A). The revised version is a 30 item paper and pencil instrument that is self-administered. It was designed to evaluate an individual family member's perception of his/her family, as an assessment of marital and family systems, and for setting treatment goals. FACES distinguishes two dimensions, adaptability and cohesion, in a circumplex model. These dimensions have been found to be seminal to the study of the family (Olson et al., 1979).

The cohesion dimension used in this research has eight sub-scales including emotional bonding, family boundaries, coalitions and decision making. Each sub-scale has two items for a total of 16 items for the dimension. In addition, 14 adaptability items are included in FACES. While the initial version of FACES consisted of 111 items, the current improved form used in this study consists of 30 items. Representative statements include

Family members felt very close to each other.

Our family did things together.

We approved of each other's friends.

The dimensions of adaptability and cohesion have been demonstrated to be independent (Russell, 1979: 1980).

The response format for FACES is a five point Likert-type scale. Responses range from one to five: almost never to almost always. Subjects were asked to choose one of the five responses as their answer for each item and circle it. FACES can be revised for single parents (Olson, Bell & Portner, Note 1) and was adapted for use in this study by phrasing all items in the past tense. Subjects were asked to answer each item based on how applicable each statement was to their marriage. Response time for FACES was approximately 10 minutes.

FACES was hand scored. The sum of the negative items was subtracted from the constant of 36 and the sum of the positive items was added to the constant to obtain the cohesion score. The possible range of cohesion scores is 16 to 80. High functioning is measured as closest to the mean. The greater the distance from that point, the greater the perceived marital dysfunction. The more extreme a couple or individual is on a FACES dimension, the more dysfunctional. Using a normative sample of 2082 adults (Olson et al., Note 1), the mean for cohesion is 64.9 with a standard deviation of 8.4.

Scale items were developed to cover the range of the cohesion concept. While in its initial form FACES consisted of 54 cohesion items, it was subsequently redesigned to overcome limitations due to length and complex sentence structure. On the basis of alpha reliability and factor analysis, the scale was reduced to 30 items.

Construct validity was assessed separately for the cohesion and adaptability items. Factor analysis indicates that the first four

factors account for 75% of the variance. When the factor analysis was limited to two factors, cohesion items loaded on Factor I.

Internal reliability was based on the Chronbach Alpha Reliability figure. The internal reliability for cohesion was .91. Test-retest reliability was conducted over a four-five week period. The Pearson correlation for the scale was .84, and for cohesion it was .83.

The Interpersonal Check List (ICL) is a self-administered questionnaire designed to measure the dimensions of affiliation and dominance. It was developed by Rulfe LaForge and Robert Suzcek (1955).

The theoretical basis for the ICL is Harry Stack Sullivan's (1957) interpersonal theory of personality which was operationalized and developed by Timothy Leary (1957) and his colleagues (LaForge & Suzcek, 1955). A 16-quadrant circumplex model was developed (Leary, 1957) based on extensive clinical data. Leary's (1957) sixteen interpersonal themes were subsequently collapsed into eight diagnostic categories to facilitate scoring. The two dimensions of the model were classified as affiliation and dominance. Affiliation varies from hostile to friendly. Hostile is described on a continuum ranging from forthright, unfriendly, firm and critical to aggressive, punitive, attacking and sarcastic. Friendly descriptors range from co-operative, affectionate and agreeable to effusive, provoking tenderness and overconventional. Dominance varies from autocratic to self-effacing and masochistic. Descriptors range from pedantic, dogmatic and managerial to weak, submissive, shy and sensitive. The combination of the dominance and affiliation variables encompasses all interpersonal aspects of personality (LaForge & Suzcek, 1955).

The ICL measures the kind and degree of interpersonal adjustment (Leary, 1957, p. 228). The ICL interprets individual adjustment in terms of the situation within which that person lives (Benjamin, 1977). For the purpose of this study, this use of the ICL will be designated ICL, Form II. It has also been used in relation to generalized significant other and similar instruments have been used with specific persons including spouse and therapist (Benjamin, 1974). For the purpose of this study, the use of the ICL for the assessment of affiliation with former husband will be designated ICL, Form I. The present form of the ICL has undergone three major revisions following intensive empirical investigation and consists of 128 items (adjectives or phrases) in approximate alphabetical order. There are eight items within each of Leary's 16 interpersonal variables. Each variable is represented at four different intensity levels. Thus, intensity 1 has one item reflecting a mild amount of the trait. Intensity 2 has three items reflecting a moderate amount of the trait. Intensity 3 has three items which reflect a marked or inappropriate amount of the trait. There is one intensity 4 item reflecting an extreme amount of the trait. Two versions of the complete 128-item check list were presented to subjects in this study. Form I has directions which read: Please check those adjectives that describe you now in your interactions with your former husband. Form I was used to obtain a score for affiliation with former husband. Form II has directions which read: Please check all the adjectives that describe you. It was used to obtain a score for adjustment. Subjects in this proposed study checked items which are descriptive of them by placing a mark in the appropriate blank next to the items. Representative items include

Cooperative
Firm, but just
Often unfriendly
Warm

The instrument is scored by tabulating the number of items in each octant that are checked by the respondent. This pattern of raw scores is then converted by a formula (LaForce et al., 1954) into a numerical index of affiliation. Scores will vary in intensity and direction from a central point (analogous to a measure of central tendency) in reference to the axis of affiliation (Keroack, Note 2). Scores more than one sigma from this point indicate an intense degree of affiliation, either friendly or hostile.

Test-retest reliability over a period of two weeks was conducted with 77 women. The average for octant reliability was .78. Unreliability which results from changes in one's view of self is not undesirable in an instrument designed to measure view of self in relation to another. Therefore, the correlation of .78 suggests that the ICL is sufficiently stable to be useful in research and evaluation (Leary, 1957). Perhaps the more important reliabilities are the interoctant correlations since certain relationships between octants are postulated. For example, adjacent octants are more closely related than non-adjacent octants. Interoctant correlation coefficients have been obtained on several samples. As hypothesized, average octant correlations decrease as more distant variables are correlated. The hostile dimension correlates least with friendliness in all samples (Leary, 1957, p. 462) with correlations ranging from .12 to 0.48.

While no adequate normative data is available, the mean performance on affiliation for all female clients (N=152) during intake at one psychiatric clinic over a six-month period was 2.8 with a standard deviation of 8.9. The wide range of scores allows for the diagnosis of samples ranging from normal individuals to psychiatric inpatients.

A Short Scale for the Assessment of Social Support (ASSESS) was used. Social support has been recognized as a factor which acts to prevent the negative consequences of crisis and change. It provides an individual with information about being cared for and loved, being esteemed and valued, and belonging to a communication and mutual obligation network (Cobb, 1976). Social support is defined as the enduring interpersonal ties to people who can be relied on to provide emotional support, help and reassurance in times of need (Caplan, 1974). While social support has been recognized as a significant factor in determining the functioning of an individual responding to a stressor, no adequate instrument has been available to measure it (Murawski, Penman & Schmitt, 1978). In a review of the concept and the measurement of social support, Murawski et al. (1978) propose that an instrument must measure the institutional, interpersonal and personal components of the social support system or perceived social support. They suggest that such an instrument includes: (1) an inventory of persons and institutions perceived of as constituting support and a measure of their nature, availability and strength, (2) beliefs about the availability of support, (3) patterns of affiliation, and (4) need for affiliation due to stressors. They conclude that no existing measure meets these criteria. ASSESS was developed by the author and John Reiss in 1981 to meet these criteria.

ASSESS is a paper and pencil self-administered instrument that takes approximately ten minutes to complete. It was designed to measure the social support system of an individual and is partially based on measures developed by Berkman (Note 3), Sarason (1981) and Lopata (1979). ASSESS provides an overall score for social support as well as research subscores for contact, network overlap, satisfaction and group affiliation. The instrument consists of Berkman's Social Network Index, selected items from Sarason's Social Support Questionnaire, and items based on Lopata's (1979) social support structured interview.

Berkman's (Note 3) five item Social Network Index was included in ASSESS because it is the only measure of social support normed on a large random sample. Almost 7000 responses were obtained from a stratified random sample (an 86% return rate) from subjects between the ages of 30 and 69. The measures of number and relative importance of social ties were developed and then collapsed into four categories: marital status, contacts with friends and family, church membership, and group associations. Scores range from 1 (low contact) to 12 (high contact). The Social Network Index, however, does not fully meet Murawski, Penman and Schmitt's (1978) criteria for an adequate assessment. It was felt that the instrument would be enhanced if an inventory of persons perceived of as supportive that measured the nature and availability of such support were included. Therefore, a modified version of Lopata's (1979) interview was included in ASSESS. Possible inventory scores range from 0 to 80. The contact is scored by giving each person listed a value from 1 to 4 based on the type (see, telephone, write) and quantity (weekly to less than once a year) of contact.

Items from Sarason's (1981) Social Support Questionnaire (SSQ) were added to meet Murawski, Penman and Schmitt's (1978) criterion to measure belief about availability of support. It is the only available instrument to measure satisfaction with social support. Seven items were included in ASSESS to indicate level of satisfaction with differing aspects of support: affection and affiliation, listening and helping. Scores are obtained on number of individuals available for support and level of satisfaction with support. Subjects circle the number of individuals who can be counted on and the level of satisfaction for the described support listed in statement form. Sarason administered the SSQ to 602 undergraduates and found number scores ranged from 2.92 to 5.46 with a mean of 4.25. Satisfaction scores ranged from 5.12 to 5.57 with a mean of 5.38. The alpha coefficient of internal reliability for N scores was .97 and for S was .94. Test-retest correlations over a four week interval were .90 for N scores and .83 for S scores (Sarason, 1981).

The current version of ASSESS consists of 15 response items. It is handscored. Test-retest reliability was conducted over a 2-3 week period with 38 community volunteers between the ages of 21 and 50. Test-retest reliability was found to be .86.

The Demographic Information Form (DIF), developed by the researcher, was administered to all subjects. It provides the following information: age, marital status parameters, socioeconomic status, number, age and custody of children, child support payments and use of mental health services. The DIF takes approximately five minutes to complete. It was used to determine if these variables significantly

correlate with the dependent measure and to provide a description of the characteristics of the sample.

The Hollingshead Two Factor Index of Social Position (Hollingshead, Note 4) was used to determine the socioeconomic status of subjects. Occupation and education are the two factors used by the index to measure socioeconomic status. Occupation is presumed to reflect the skills and power that individuals possess as they perform societal maintenance functions. Education is believed to reflect cultural tastes, as well as knowledge. Occupations are divided into seven groups. Executives and major professionals are given a score of 1. Managers, other professionals and proprietors of medium size businesses are given a score of 2, etc., and unskilled employees are given a score of 7. The educational scale is also divided into seven groups. The occupation and ed scores are multiplied by factor weights of 7 and 4, respectively, and summing the two resulting scores. Scores can range from a low of 11 to a high of 77.

Procedures

Collection of Data

Statements of cooperation were secured from five singles organizations in the Gainesville area. The names, addresses and telephone numbers of female members were obtained from the organization membership lists. Subjects meeting the criteria were contacted by telephone and requested to participate in the study. Additionally, they were asked to suggest the names of other women who would fit the criteria. These additional women were also contacted.

All subjects were contacted by telephone and asked if they would be willing to participate in a study on female single parents that would require approximately 20 minutes of their time. These women who chose to participate received the five forms related to the study: The Family Adaptability and Cohesion Scale; The Interpersonal Check List, Form I and Form II; A Short Scale for the Evaluation of Social Support; The Demographic Information Form; and a postage paid self-addressed envelope and a participant identification card. These were delivered to each subject by the researcher at a mutually agreed upon time and place.

Subjects were offered two methods of returning the completed form: (1) using the self-addressed envelope or (2) arranging a pick-up by the researcher. Subjects who chose the first method were asked to mail the completed form in the envelope provided within the following seven days.

Subjects who chose the second method of returning the completed forms arranged a time, day and location for the researcher to pick up those forms within the following week (seven days) and did not use the envelope provided. There was one follow-up contact for those subjects who did not return completed forms. Subjects were again provided with the two options for return of the forms.

Those subjects who chose method one were contacted five to seven days after delivery if forms had not been returned and the same procedures were followed. Those subjects who chose method two who did not have the completed forms were contacted by telephone if the subject was not available at the arranged meeting to arrange for pick-up of the forms. Arrangements were made in person if the subject met the

researcher but had not yet completed the forms. These collection and follow-up procedures are designed to produce a high response rate.

All forms had a subject number code. All subjects had a participant identification card indicating their name, address, phone number and subject code number. Participant identification cards were utilized to verify receipt of forms by the researcher. To protect the anonymity of the subjects, these cards were destroyed at the end of the data collection process.

Analysis of the Data

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a significant relationship between adjustment and perceived marital cohesion, social support, affiliation with ex-husband and selected demographic parameters. Adjustment was the score as measured by the ICL, Form II; perceived marital cohesion was the score as measured by FACES; social support was the score as measured by ASSESS; and affiliation with ex-husband was the affiliation score as measured by the ICL, Form I.

A multiple regression analysis was performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences subprogram regression (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner & Bent, 1970). Multiple regression is a technique to analyze the relationship between a dependent or criterion variable and a set of independent or predictor variables. Adjustment was defined as the dependent variable. Affiliation with ex-husband, perceived marital cohesion and current social support were defined as independent variables. Age, socioeconomic status, number of children, number of

years married, number of years single, and regularity of child support payments were defined as the independent demographic variables.

A prediction equation was to be obtained that indicated how the independent variable scores could be weighted and summed to predict adjustment. If the equation was found to be significant ($p = .05$), additional analyses were to be performed to test the individual regression weights. A positive linear relationship was predicted between adjustment (score on ICL, Form II) and perceived marital cohesion (score on FACES); social support (score on ASSESS); affiliation with ex-husband (score on ICL, Form I) and the selected demographic parameters.

Limitations of the Study

As can be observed from this review, more research is needed to more fully understand the post-marital interaction pattern of parents. Marital disruption can be assessed at a series of levels (societal, marital, individual) and at different times in the process (Laner, 1978). Ideally, a study of marital and post-marital patterns would be longitudinal. It would evaluate marital structure and then evaluate the interactions of those who experience separation/divorce. Individual perceptions, clinical assessment of behaviors, and instrumentation would be utilized.

It would, ideally, encompass the new partners as well as those individuals who do not effectively cope and become the statistics of admission rates and suicides. Such a study would control for the myriad of factors that contribute to adjustment including personality variables, environmental parameters and coping strategies (McCubbin et

al., 1980). However, a project of such magnitude is beyond the scope of most researchers. This research is an attempt to look at major interpersonal components of post-marital adjustment: interaction patterns between parents and social support. Although no causality can be inferred from correlations between these patterns, the findings may help service providers in their understanding of the mechanisms of interpersonal processes (Umana et al., 1980, p. 161).

This study is limited by its sampling procedure. A random non-clinical sample is difficult to obtain due to problems in identifying members of the population of separated/divorced. Subsamples from different populations, such as referrals from organizations and churches, have been used (Kraus, 1979, p. 113). However, this research may be biased by subject selection procedures utilizing divorce networks and organizations, and toward women who volunteer to participate. In addition, it was conducted in one city and there is no control or comparison group. Thus, the generalizability is limited. While retrospective responses about marriage have been employed in all the major studies on divorce (Kitson & Raschke, 1981), this is a limitation to this study. While partners' feelings toward their relationship, both past and present, may differ (Levinger, 1976), this study is limited in that it assesses only female perceptions and not those of their former spouses.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the adjustment of female single parents following marital disruption. One hundred and eighty-eight (188) were contacted and asked to fill out a paper and pencil questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of psychological measures of perceived marital cohesion, affiliation with former husband, current social support and adjustment as well as demographic measures of age, number of children, socioeconomic parameters and marital parameters.

Names of participants were obtained from ten groups in the community: singles groups from five different religious denominations, a professional women's organization, three distinctive feminist organizations and two ongoing programs for women in transition. Additional names of women who were not group members were obtained from the women contacted through the organizations. A total of 188 were reached by telephone. All but one agreed to fill out the questionnaire and return it. Initially, 136 questionnaires, or 72.7% were returned. After a follow-up telephone contact, an additional fifteen, or 8%, were returned. The total number of returned questionnaires was 151. This constituted an 80.7% return rate. Seven questionnaires were not valid because the participants either did not have custody of the child or had been separated less than one year. Therefore, the total sample

consisted of 144 white women over the age of 25, with custody of at least one minor child and separated and/or divorced at least one year.

A post hoc examination of the parameters of the sample (see Table 2) indicated that the mean age was 38.08 years and that the average number of children was close to two ($\bar{x} = 1.95$). The criteria for the sample, i.e. over 25 years of age with at least one minor child, influenced both of these scores by setting an absolute minimum age and a maximum age of menopause plus 18. The average number of years married was 11.08 and the average time separated and/or divorced was 5.10 years. Both socioeconomic status and regularity of child support payments were above national norms for the population of separated/divorced mothers (Norton and Glick, 1979). This sample was middle class as measured by Hollingshead's (note 4) two factor index ($\bar{x} = 29.24$). The subjects received approximately eight monthly child support payments ($\bar{x} = 7.94$) in the past year. The standard deviation (5.39), however, indicated the high variability in the regularity of payments. National figures indicate that the population of single mothers typically is lower middle class and less than half of this population received child support two years after separation (Norton and Glick, 1979).

Cohesion scores had a mean of 44.47 with a standard deviation of 11.21 as compared to the norm from a national survey (note 1) which had a mean of 64.9 and a standard deviation of 8.4. The scores indicated that this sample's perceptions of their marriages would be classified as disengaged. Over 66% of the respondents would be classified as disengaged and dysfunctional based on their perceptions of their marriages. This comparison is, however, based on contrasting parents from intact marriages to parents from divorced relationships.

Table 2. Means and Standard Deviations of Independent Variables and Dependent variable

Variable		Mean	Standard Deviation
Dependent	Independent		
Adjustment		6.95	4.84
	Affiliation	2.00	6.95
	Cohesion	44.47	11.21
	Social Support	21.48	4.47
	Age	38.08	6.53
	Number of Children	1.95	1.17
	Social and Economic Status	29.24	13.12
	Years Married	11.08	6.63
	Years Separated/Divorced	5.10	3.31
	Regular Monthly Child Support in Past Year	7.94	5.39

The mean for affiliation with former husband was found to be slightly lower for this sample than for psychiatric intake patients, but the comparison was between a psychiatric population and a sample based on marital status. The standard deviation for this sample was lower than for the intake sample the instrument was normed on (6.95 vs. 8.9) indicating larger variance for psychiatric clients in the range for affiliation, i.e. clients are more variable on the love-hate dimension and range from functional to dysfunctional.

The mean score for social support for this sample was similar to the mean score for the instrument (21.48 vs. 22.9). The standard deviation for the sample was, however, larger (4.47 vs. 3.12) for this sample.

The overall mean score for adjustment for this sample was higher ($\bar{x} = 6.95$) than the mean score ($\bar{x} = 4.40$) for a population of clients (Leary, 1957). The client sample had a higher standard deviation than this sample (11.83 vs. 4.84) indicating larger variance in adjustment dimensions.

The returned questionnaires were analyzed using multiple regression analysis (Nie et al. 1970). The following null hypothesis was tested:

Ho: No significant relationship will exist between adjustment and perceived marital cohesion, social support, affiliation with former husband, age, number of children, social and economic status, length of marriage, length of time since separation and regularity of child support payments.

A multiple regression analysis was performed for 144 respondents to obtain a prediction equation to test the hypothesis at the $p < .05$ level of significance. Results of the analysis are reported in Table 3. No significance was found ($F = .97$). This study addressed the question

Table 3. Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis

Analysis of Variance		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Regression		9.	205.37391	22.81932	.97423
Residual		134.	3138.67613	23.42296	

Variable	Multiple R	B	Beta	Std. Error B	F
Number of Children	.12323	-.7067763	-.17052	.47364	2.227
Years Separated/Divorced	.15194	-.1811556	-.12407	.16391	1.222
Sex	.16414	.3415557	.09264	.03357	1.035
Age	.16825	.3374169	.04558	.12615	.072
Regular Child Support	.16876	.1440992	.01606	.07967	.033
Affiliation	.23709	-.1196757	-.17210	.06237	3.682
Cohesion	.24707	-.3371389	-.07815	.03921	.739
Years Married	.24757	.2455745	.03365	.12683	.037
Social Support	.24782	.1282192	.01186	.09673	.018
(Constant)		.8048831			

of the possible influences on adjustment following marital disruption. While the questionnaire was designed to elicit information on parameters purported to affect adjustment, none of these parameters were found to have significant predictive value. The results indicated that any relationship between the predictor variables and the criterion variable was due to change as there was insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

A secondary analysis of correlation was performed to evaluate the correlations between variables. Results are reported in Table 4 and Table 5.

Several significant correlations were obtained. One cluster of correlations was associated with the time factor. Age of respondents was significantly correlated ($p < .01$) with number of years married ($r = .7520$), number of years separated and/or divorced ($r = .2133$) and number of children ($r = .6281$). In addition, the number of years a respondent was married correlated significantly ($p < .01$) with number of children ($r = .6220$) and regularity of child support payments ($r = .1936$), and length of time separated and/or divorced ($r = -.2423$). Clearly, these variables correlated in large part due to the time parameter.

The correlation between number of years married and the regularity of child support payments was $r = .1936$, probability $< .01$. Fathers who had been with their children longer were more likely to provide ongoing, regular child support. In addition, the number of years married correlated ($r = .2661$, $p < .01$) with perceived marital cohesion. However, the correlation must remain within the context of scores whose mean fell in the dysfunctional range for the cohesion dimension.

Table 4. Correlation of Independent Variables and Dependent Variable

	Adjustment
Affiliation	-.1336
Cohesion	-.0906
Social Support	-.0503
Age	-.0751
Number of Children	-.1232
Social and Economic Status	.0527
Years Married	-.0358
Years Separated/Divorced	-.0873
Regular Child Support Payments	-.0096

Table 5. Intercorrelations Among Nine Independent Variables Measured

	Age	SES	Number Children	Social Support	Time Married	Time Sep/Div	Affili- ation	Cohes- ion	Child Support
Age									
SES	.0159								
Number of Children	.6280**	.1479							
Social Support	.0967	-.1762*	.0555						
Time Married	.7520**	.1096	.6220**	.0510					
Time Sep/Div	.2133**	-.1129	-.0132	.0788	-.2423**				
Affiliation	.0133	.2091**	.0627	.0939	.1209	-.2260**			
Cohesion	.1483	-.1040	.1066	.2466**	.2661**	-.0768	.0859		
Child Support	.1141	-.1096	.0530	.1680*	.1936**	-.1474	.1677	.1235	

* $p = .05$ ** $p = .01$

There was a significant negative correlation ($r = -.2260$, $p < .01$) between degree of affiliation with former husband and length of time separated and/or divorced. It would seem, from the results of this study, that the longer a woman was single, the less intense her feelings towards her ex-husband were. A significant correlation was found between current affiliation with former husband and social and economic status ($r = .2091$, $p < .01$).

Three factors had a significant correlation with social support. Significant correlations were obtained between social support and social and economic status ($r = .1762$, $p < .05$), cohesion ($r = .2466$, $p < .01$) and regular child support payments ($r = .1680$, $p < .05$).

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the psychological adjustment of custodial single parents following marital disruption. The participants were white females over the age of 25 who had custody of at least one minor child. The subjects were obtained from ten different organizations in the community along with referrals from group members. The dependent measure was psychological adjustment as measured by the Interpersonal Check List, Form II. Three independent psychological variables were assessed: perceived marital cohesion as measured by the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scale; current affiliation with former husband as measured by the Interpersonal Check List, Form I; and current social support as measured by A Short Scale for the Evaluation of Social Support (ASSESS). Five demographic parameters were also utilized as independent variables: age, length of time married, length of time separated and/or divorced, regularity of child support payments and socioeconomic status. These variables were selected as relevant to adjustment following marital disruption based on a review of current literature.

A multiple regression analysis was performed for these nine variables. A secondary analysis correlation was performed on all the

variables. Results of the multiple regression analysis indicated that a relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable was not significant.

Discussion

This study was initiated because the literature on marital disruption suggested a variety of variables that might affect the adjustment following marital disruption. There is general agreement in the literature (Kitson and Raschke, 1981), for example, that the year following the separation is unique and disruptive but that the subsequent period is more adjusted. For this reason, participants in this study had all been single for one year or longer. Several recent studies concerning single parents (Hetherington et al., 1976, 1977; Wallerstein and Kelly, 1980) indicated that the adjustment of parents impacts on children's adjustment. In particular, past and current relationship between parents and the degree of adjustment following marital dissolution affected children's adjustment. This gave major meaning to conducting additional research on adjustment and including interpersonal parameters, specifically interaction patterns between the parents. Social support was shown to be significant (Umana et al., 1980), not only in the divorce literature but also in the body of literature on crisis and stress.

The variables of social support and relationship with ex-husband had been demonstrated as relating to adjustment, yet the present study found no significant predictive quality for any of the variables in relation to psychological adjustment. The lack of significant findings in view of the literature was puzzling.

What could explain the discrepancy between previous research and the lack of findings from this study? Possible explanations are: the limits of the sample, the limits of the instruments and the limits of the state of the art.

Initial speculation concerned the sample. How representative was it? Participants were obtained from a wide variety of organizations. Groups ranged from singles groups from traditional, conservative churches to denominations with diverse values and beliefs, from radical feminist networks to a professional women's group and voluntary self-help groups for women in transition. In addition, women who were not group members were contacted if their names were known by group members. While the sample was clearly not random, many diverse populations were tapped in an attempt to diversify the sample. Yet, the sample could have been biased in that many women were group members. Perhaps being in a group and/or being involved with group members contributed to the lack of significant results. However, this is problematical and needs further research.

In relation to demographic parameters, the sample in the present study was of a higher class and received more child support than national norms. The middle-class status of this sample may have been due to the nature of the community sampled since the education level of the population was high due to the presence of a university in the community. This may account for the elevated socioeconomic status and may have contributed to the lack of significant results. Congruent with this aspect, the education level, job security, and social class of subjects' former husbands could also have positively influenced the

regular payment of child support. Other research (Kitson and Raschke, 1981) has proven significant based on this type of sample. Perhaps middle-class status and education levels affect the impact of interpersonal parameters differently.

In relation to the psychological parameters, the mean score for affiliation was lower for this sample than for patients at intake, but one would expect less hostility and/or friendliness from a non-client population. The same is true for the difference in cohesion where this sample viewed their marriages as less cohesive than intact couples. One would expect marriages that terminate to be less cohesive (Levinger, 1976). It is interesting, however, that the mean score obtained would be classified as dysfunctional. The writer can only speculate that the impact of divorce on a retrospective assessment of marriage may have shifted the mean. This may have contributed to the lack of significance in this study since the range of scores on the cohesion dimension was so skewed. Social support scores for this sample were similar to scores for the population on which ASSESS was normed. That group (Crisis Center volunteers) appeared to have more adequate social support and, in addition, contained married, ever single, and single again individuals. Since the literature indicates that singles have low social support (Bloom et al., 1977), perhaps the unexpectedly high social support of this sample washed out effects due to low cohesion.

While the multiple regression analysis was not significant, significant correlations were obtained among some of the independent variables. Several variables were associated with time such as age, time married, time divorced and number of children. Therefore, several significant correlations, i.e. age and number of years married, were

anticipated. It is interesting, however, to consider two of these correlations in greater detail: length of time married with cohesion and length of time separated/divorced with affiliation. Length of time correlating with cohesion may have been due to time allowing an increase in interpersonal bonding which remained after residential ties had ended. They may also have correlated because length of marriage increased the perception of cohesion. Length of time separated/divorced correlating with current affiliation with former husband substantiated the view that the longer one is single again, the less intense the affective interaction between partners. While this analysis included both friendly and hostile affective states, these results were congruent with theoretical models of divorce (Kessler, 1975; Weiss, 1975). The models, however, focus on the first year following separation. The negative correlation appeared to indicate that the level of affective involvement continued to decrease over time. Affiliation also correlated with social support. This suggested that the higher the socioeconomic status, the more a woman could allow more extreme affiliative feelings. As she was less economically in need, she was more able to acknowledge either friendly or hostile feelings. Three variables correlated with social support: socioeconomic status, cohesion, and regular child support payments. These correlations may have been due to appropriate and satisfactory social support decreasing individual stress and therefore decreasing the demand quality on external systems. This process may have allowed more systemic flexibility and responsiveness regardless of the nature of the external system. They also appeared to confirm the increase in social support when under financial stress.

So little of the variance in adjustment ($r = .06$) was accounted for by the independent parameters that serious questions were raised regarding the appropriateness of the dependent parameter and/or the instrument utilized to measure it. The literature on divorce (Kitson and Raschke, 1981) indicated that adjustment after this type of crisis was an appropriate and essential focus for the researcher. The literature on the ICL indicated that it was stable and that it was an effective measure of adjustment. Perhaps the measure was too stable and it measured those basic components of personality adjustment that were either not affected by crisis parameters or that could not be measured as a function of those parameters since the change was more subtle in nature. Perhaps measurement of adjustment was no longer a function of variables previously held to be significant.

Subsequent speculation focused on the limits of the instruments used to measure the independent psychological variables. While the ICL has been used for over 30 years with a variety of populations and it has been incorporated into the body of literature on interpersonal diagnosis (Benjamin, 1974), it has not been extensively applied to a non-client population. Perhaps the range limitations of interpersonal assessment for a non-clinical sample did not allow the instrument to function as a predictive measure of affiliation. Both FACES and ASSESS were more recent instruments and have not been utilized as extensively. While the data on reliability and validity justified their use in this study, the instruments may not have been sensitive enough to use as prediction measures for a non-clinical population. In addition, the ICL, FACES and ASSESS did not control for social desirability. One can hypothesize

that the anonymity of the questionnaires decreased the desirability demands, but the study cannot document it.

Another examination of the lack of significant predictive findings evaluated the limits of the state of the art. While the present study was limited by a variety of factors, it was conceived within existing theoretical models. Perhaps current models are, at the present time, an inadequate basis upon which to develop testable hypotheses. It may be that the present study indicates the need for fuller theoretical models that more adequately serve as a platform for research. While the transition from theory to research is difficult, it would seem that current divorce theory may be somewhat lacking in its inability to allow research to flourish within complementary patterns.

Recommendations of Future Research

This study attempted to assess adjustment and possible predictor variables from an interpersonal perspective. That this was not a significant endeavor does not devalue interpersonal theory. Rather, it serves to stress the need for more appropriate and innovative approaches for the utilization of this general model. Different types of research are needed that both support the general theoretical model and allow for the expansion of the pool of information on specific predictor factors and on the consequences of those factors.

Interpersonal theory has proven to have clinical significance and impact. Research lags behind clinical experience. Marital cohesion, current affiliation patterns and social support continue to need experimental and observational research. They have each been shown to be clinically significant parameters. What remains is for them to be

incorporated into research designs that have the potential to verify their significance in a more scientific manner.

While this study supported the feasibility of this method of questionnaire data collection, it raises doubts concerning the exclusive use of paper and pencil questionnaires. Perhaps a more meaningful method would be to combine questionnaires with interviews and assessments. Qualitative measures might shed light on interpersonal parameters in a more meaningful manner than more quantifiable methods. Possible approaches include longitudinal studies of marital partners, inclusion of adult interpersonal pattern parameters in research on children from intact homes and the study of families in semi-permanent group settings such as churches or schools. Easy, rapid and inexpensive methods of evaluating interpersonal parameters need to be further tested so that valid and reliable measures will be more readily available.

Overall, clinical data on separation and/or divorce have demonstrated the potential to help large numbers of adults and children. Clinical evidence is extensive and reveals a great deal of useful information. Research has been less abundant and less valuable and the future of research on divorce and on single parenthood is open.

APPENDIX A
FAMILY ADAPTABILITY AND COHESION
EVALUATION SCALE

(Olson, Bell, & Portner, Note 1)

CIRCLE THE NUMBER THAT BEST REFLECTS YOUR MARRIAGE AND YOUR FAMILY AS IT
WAS WHEN YOU WERE MARRIED.

- | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
|--------|-------|----------------|-----------|------------|--|
| Almost | Never | Once in awhile | Sometimes | Frequently | Almost Always |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Family members were supportive of each other during difficult times. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | In our family, it was easy for everyone to express his/her opinion. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | It was easier to discuss problems with people outside the family than with other family members. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Each family member had input in major family decisions. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Our family gathered together in the same room. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Children had a say in their discipline. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Our family did things together. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Family members discussed problems and felt good about the solutions. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | In our family, everyone went his/her own way. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | We shifted household responsibilities from person to person. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Family members knew each other's close friends. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | It was hard to know what the rules were in our family. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Family members consulted other family members on their decisions. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Family members said what they wanted. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | We had difficulty thinking of things to do as a family. |

- 1 2 3 4 5 In solving problems, the children's suggestions were followed.
- 1 2 3 4 5 Family members felt very close to each other.
- 1 2 3 4 5 Discipline was fair in our family.
- 1 2 3 4 5 Family members felt closer to people outside the family than to other family members.
- 1 2 3 4 5 Our family tried new ways of dealing with problems.
- 1 2 3 4 5 Family members went along with what the family decided to do.
- 1 2 3 4 5 In our family, everyone shared responsibilities.
- 1 2 3 4 5 Family members liked to spend their free time with each other.
- 1 2 3 4 5 It was difficult to get a rule changed in our family.
- 1 2 3 4 5 Family members avoided each other at home.
- 1 2 3 4 5 When problems arose, we compromised.
- 1 2 3 4 5 We approved of each other's friends.
- 1 2 3 4 5 Family members were afraid to say what was on their minds.
- 1 2 3 4 5 Family members paired up rather than did things as a total family.
- 1 2 3 4 5 Family members shared interests and hobbies with each other.

APPENDIX B
INTERPERSONAL CHECK LIST, FORM II

PLEASE CHECK ALL THE ADJECTIVES THAT DESCRIBE YOU.

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> affectionate and understanding | <input type="checkbox"/> dictatorial |
| <input type="checkbox"/> able to criticize myself | <input type="checkbox"/> dependent |
| <input type="checkbox"/> able to give orders | <input type="checkbox"/> distrust everybody |
| <input type="checkbox"/> always ashamed of myself | <input type="checkbox"/> dominating |
| <input type="checkbox"/> accept advice readily | <input type="checkbox"/> eager to get along with others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> act important | <input type="checkbox"/> egotistical and conceited |
| <input type="checkbox"/> admire and imitate others | <input type="checkbox"/> easily embarrassed |
| <input type="checkbox"/> able to doubt others | <input type="checkbox"/> easily led |
| <input type="checkbox"/> agree with everyone | <input type="checkbox"/> encourage others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> always giving advice | <input type="checkbox"/> enjoy taking care of others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> appreciative | <input type="checkbox"/> easily fooled |
| <input type="checkbox"/> able to take care of myself | <input type="checkbox"/> expect everyone to admire me |
| <input type="checkbox"/> always pleasant and agreeable | <input type="checkbox"/> friendly all the time |
| <input type="checkbox"/> apologetic | <input type="checkbox"/> firm but just |
| <input type="checkbox"/> bossy | <input type="checkbox"/> frequently angry |
| <input type="checkbox"/> big-hearted and unselfish | <input type="checkbox"/> forceful |
| <input type="checkbox"/> bitter | <input type="checkbox"/> forgive anything |

Please check all the adjectives that describe you.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> businesslike | <input type="checkbox"/> frequently disappointed |
| <input type="checkbox"/> boastful | <input type="checkbox"/> friendly |
| <input type="checkbox"/> can be obedient | <input type="checkbox"/> fond of everyone |
| <input type="checkbox"/> critical of others | <input type="checkbox"/> grateful |
| <input type="checkbox"/> considerate | <input type="checkbox"/> generous to a fault |
| <input type="checkbox"/> can be strict if necessary | <input type="checkbox"/> good leader |
| <input type="checkbox"/> complaining | <input type="checkbox"/> give freely of myself |
| <input type="checkbox"/> can be frank and honest | <input type="checkbox"/> hard-hearted |
| <input type="checkbox"/> can be indifferent to others | <input type="checkbox"/> helpful |
| <input type="checkbox"/> clinging vine | <input type="checkbox"/> hard-boiled if necessary |
| <input type="checkbox"/> can complain if necessary | <input type="checkbox"/> hardly every talk back |
| <input type="checkbox"/> cold and unfeeling | <input type="checkbox"/> hard to impress |
| <input type="checkbox"/> cooperative | <input type="checkbox"/> independent |
| <input type="checkbox"/> cruel and unkind | <input type="checkbox"/> impatient with others' mistakes |
| <input type="checkbox"/> irritable | <input type="checkbox"/> sarcastic |
| <input type="checkbox"/> jealous | <input type="checkbox"/> self-reliant and assertive |
| <input type="checkbox"/> kind and reassuring | <input type="checkbox"/> somewhat snobbish |
| <input type="checkbox"/> let others make decisions | <input type="checkbox"/> self-punishing |
| <input type="checkbox"/> like to be taken care of | <input type="checkbox"/> selfish |
| <input type="checkbox"/> love everyone | <input type="checkbox"/> self-confident |
| <input type="checkbox"/> lack self-confidence | <input type="checkbox"/> skeptical |
| <input type="checkbox"/> like to compete with others | <input type="checkbox"/> spineless |
| <input type="checkbox"/> like everybody | <input type="checkbox"/> shy |
| <input type="checkbox"/> like responsibility | <input type="checkbox"/> self-seeking |

Please check all the adjectives that describe you.

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> meek | <input type="checkbox"/> straightforward and direct |
| <input type="checkbox"/> make good impression | <input type="checkbox"/> shrewd and calculating |
| <input type="checkbox"/> manage others | <input type="checkbox"/> sociable and neighborly |
| <input type="checkbox"/> modest | <input type="checkbox"/> too lenient with others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> overprotective of others | <input type="checkbox"/> touchy and easily hurt |
| <input type="checkbox"/> outspoken | <input type="checkbox"/> try to be too successful |
| <input type="checkbox"/> often gloomy | <input type="checkbox"/> too willing to give others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> obey too willingly | <input type="checkbox"/> tender and soft-hearted |
| <input type="checkbox"/> often unfriendly | <input type="checkbox"/> think only of myself |
| <input type="checkbox"/> often helped by others | <input type="checkbox"/> timid |
| <input type="checkbox"/> oversympathetic | <input type="checkbox"/> trusting and eager to please |
| <input type="checkbox"/> often admired | <input type="checkbox"/> try to comfort everyone |
| <input type="checkbox"/> proud and self-satisfied | <input type="checkbox"/> too easily influenced by friends |
| <input type="checkbox"/> passive and unaggressive | <input type="checkbox"/> usually give in |
| <input type="checkbox"/> resentful | <input type="checkbox"/> very anxious to be approved of |
| <input type="checkbox"/> rebel against everything | <input type="checkbox"/> every respectful of authority |
| <input type="checkbox"/> resent being bossed | <input type="checkbox"/> well thought of |
| <input type="checkbox"/> respected by others | <input type="checkbox"/> want his love |
| <input type="checkbox"/> spoil people with kindness | <input type="checkbox"/> will confide in anyone |
| <input type="checkbox"/> stern but fair | <input type="checkbox"/> want to be led |

Please check all the adjectives that describe you.

___ Slow to forgive a wrong

___ want everyone to like me

___ self-respecting

___ will believe anyone

___ stubborn

___ warm

APPENDIX C
INTERPERSONAL CHECK LIST, FORM I

PLEASE CHECK THOSE ADJECTIVES THAT DESCRIBE YOU
NOW IN YOUR INTERACTIONS WITH YOUR FORMER HUSBAND

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> affectionate and understanding | <input type="checkbox"/> dictatorial |
| <input type="checkbox"/> able to criticize | <input type="checkbox"/> dependent |
| <input type="checkbox"/> able to give orders | <input type="checkbox"/> distrust him |
| <input type="checkbox"/> always ashamed | <input type="checkbox"/> dominating |
| <input type="checkbox"/> accept advice readily | <input type="checkbox"/> eager to get along with him |
| <input type="checkbox"/> act important | <input type="checkbox"/> egotistical and conceited |
| <input type="checkbox"/> admire and imitate him | <input type="checkbox"/> easily embarrassed |
| <input type="checkbox"/> able to doubt him | <input type="checkbox"/> easily led |
| <input type="checkbox"/> agree with him | <input type="checkbox"/> encourage him |
| <input type="checkbox"/> always giving advice | <input type="checkbox"/> enjoy taking care of him |
| <input type="checkbox"/> appreciative | <input type="checkbox"/> easily fooled |
| <input type="checkbox"/> able to take care of myself | <input type="checkbox"/> expect him to admire me |
| <input type="checkbox"/> always pleasant and agreeable | <input type="checkbox"/> friendly all the time |
| <input type="checkbox"/> apologetic | <input type="checkbox"/> firm but just |
| <input type="checkbox"/> bossy | <input type="checkbox"/> frequently angry |
| <input type="checkbox"/> big-hearted and unselfish | <input type="checkbox"/> forceful |
| <input type="checkbox"/> bitter | <input type="checkbox"/> forgive anything |
| <input type="checkbox"/> business like | <input type="checkbox"/> frequently disappointed |
| <input type="checkbox"/> boastful | <input type="checkbox"/> friendly |

Please check those adjectives that describe you
now in your interactions with your former husband

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> can be obedient | <input type="checkbox"/> fond of him |
| <input type="checkbox"/> critical of him | <input type="checkbox"/> grateful |
| <input type="checkbox"/> considerate | <input type="checkbox"/> generous to a fault |
| <input type="checkbox"/> can be strict if necessary | <input type="checkbox"/> good leader |
| <input type="checkbox"/> complaining | <input type="checkbox"/> give freely of myself |
| <input type="checkbox"/> can be frank and honest | <input type="checkbox"/> hard-hearted |
| <input type="checkbox"/> can be indifferent to him | <input type="checkbox"/> helpful |
| <input type="checkbox"/> clinging vine | <input type="checkbox"/> hard-boiled if necessary |
| <input type="checkbox"/> can complain if necessary | <input type="checkbox"/> hardly ever talk back |
| <input type="checkbox"/> cold and unfeeling | <input type="checkbox"/> hard to impress |
| <input type="checkbox"/> cooperative | <input type="checkbox"/> independent |
| <input type="checkbox"/> cruel and unkind | <input type="checkbox"/> impatient with his mistakes |
| <input type="checkbox"/> irritable | <input type="checkbox"/> sarcastic |
| <input type="checkbox"/> jealous | <input type="checkbox"/> self-reliant and assertive |
| <input type="checkbox"/> kind and reassuring | <input type="checkbox"/> somewhat snobbish |
| <input type="checkbox"/> let him make decisions | <input type="checkbox"/> self-punishing |
| <input type="checkbox"/> like to be taken care of | <input type="checkbox"/> selfish |
| <input type="checkbox"/> love him | <input type="checkbox"/> self-confident |
| <input type="checkbox"/> lack self-confidence | <input type="checkbox"/> skeptical |
| <input type="checkbox"/> like to compete with him | <input type="checkbox"/> spineless |
| <input type="checkbox"/> like him | <input type="checkbox"/> shy |
| <input type="checkbox"/> like responsibility | <input type="checkbox"/> self-seeking |
| <input type="checkbox"/> meek | <input type="checkbox"/> straightforward and direct |

Please check those adjectives that describe you
now in your interactions with your former husband

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> make a good impression | <input type="checkbox"/> shrewd and calculating |
| <input type="checkbox"/> manage him | <input type="checkbox"/> sociable and neighborly |
| <input type="checkbox"/> modest | <input type="checkbox"/> too lenient with him |
| <input type="checkbox"/> overprotective | <input type="checkbox"/> touchy and easily hurt |
| <input type="checkbox"/> outspoken | <input type="checkbox"/> try to be too successful |
| <input type="checkbox"/> often gloomy | <input type="checkbox"/> too willing to give to him |
| <input type="checkbox"/> obey too willingly | <input type="checkbox"/> tender and soft-hearted |
| <input type="checkbox"/> often unfriendly | <input type="checkbox"/> think only of myself |
| <input type="checkbox"/> often helped by him | <input type="checkbox"/> timid |
| <input type="checkbox"/> oversympathetic | <input type="checkbox"/> trusting and eager to please |
| <input type="checkbox"/> often admired | <input type="checkbox"/> try to comfort him |
| <input type="checkbox"/> proud and self-satisfied | <input type="checkbox"/> too easily influenced by him |
| <input type="checkbox"/> passive and unaggressive | <input type="checkbox"/> usually give in |
| <input type="checkbox"/> resentful | <input type="checkbox"/> very anxious to be approved of |
| <input type="checkbox"/> rebel against everything | <input type="checkbox"/> very respectful of authority |
| <input type="checkbox"/> resent being bossed | <input type="checkbox"/> well thought of |
| <input type="checkbox"/> respected by him | <input type="checkbox"/> want his love |
| <input type="checkbox"/> spoil him with kindness | <input type="checkbox"/> will confide in him |
| <input type="checkbox"/> stern but fair | <input type="checkbox"/> want to be led |
| <input type="checkbox"/> slow to forgive a wrong | <input type="checkbox"/> want him to like me |
| <input type="checkbox"/> self-respecting | <input type="checkbox"/> will believe him |
| <input type="checkbox"/> stubborn | <input type="checkbox"/> warm |

APPENDIX D
A SHORT SCALE FOR THE EVALUATION OF
SOCIAL SUPPORT

In this part of the questionnaire you will be asked a variety of questions about your friends, your relatives, and your community.

1. Are you now married, separated, divorced or widowed?
☐ married ☐ separated ☐ divorced ☐ widowed

2. How many close friends do you have? (People that you feel at ease with, can talk to about private matters, and can call on for help.)
☐ none ☐ 1 or 2 ☐ 3 to 5 ☐ 6 to 9 ☐ 10 or more

3. How many relatives do you have that you feel close to?
☐ none ☐ 1 or 2 ☐ 3 to 5 ☐ 6 to 9 ☐ 10 or more

4. How many of these friends or relatives do you see at least once a month?
☐ none ☐ 1 or 2 ☐ 3 to 5 ☐ 6 to 9 ☐ 10 or more

5. Do you belong to any of these groups?

	Yes	No
A social or recreational group?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A labor union, commercial group or professional organization?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A church group?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A group concerned with children? (PTA, Boy Scouts, Girls Club)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A group concerned with community betterment, charity or service?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Any other group? Describe. _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. How often do you see, telephone and write important friends and relatives? Select up to 5 relatives and friends that you do not live with who are most important to you. For each relative, fill in the person's relationship to you. For each friend, fill in the person's first name. Then fill in how often you are in contact. For example,

SEE

TELEPHONE

WRITE

(name or relationship)

a. _____
(name or relationship)

b. _____
(name or relationship)

c. _____
(name or relationship)

d. _____
(name or relationship)

e. _____
(name or relationship)

7. How many of your friends are friends with each other?
 () none () a few () several () most of them () all of them

On each of the following questions, first count all the people you know (including those with whom you live) whom you can count on for help or support in the manner described, and circle the appropriate number. Then, circle how satisfied you are with the overall support you have. If you have no support for a question, circle "0", but still rate your level of satisfaction.

8. How many people are there whom you can really count on to listen to when you need to talk?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

How satisfied?

very fairly a little a little fairly very
satisfied satisfied satisfied dissatisfied dissatisfied dissatisfied

9. How many people are there whose lives you feel you are an important part of?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

How satisfied?

very fairly a little a little fairly very
satisfied satisfied satisfied dissatisfied dissatisfied dissatisfied

10. How many people are there that you can really count on to be dependable when you need help?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

How satisfied?

very fairly a little a little fairly very
satisfied satisfied satisfied dissatisfied dissatisfied dissatisfied

11. How many people are there who will comfort you when you need it by holding you in their arms?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

How satisfied?

very fairly a little a little fairly very
satisfied satisfied satisfied dissatisfied dissatisfied dissatisfied

12. How many people are there whom you can really count on to tell you, in a thoughtful manner, when you need to improve in some way?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

How satisfied?

very fairly a little a little fairly very
satisfied satisfied satisfied dissatisfied dissatisfied dissatisfied

13. How many people are there whom you feel truly care about you deeply?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

How satisfied?

very fairly a little a little fairly very
satisfied satisfied satisfied dissatisfied dissatisfied dissatisfied

14. How many people are there whom you can really count on to listen to you when you need to talk about medical or health concerns?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

How satisfied

very fairly a little a little fairly very
satisfied satisfied satisfied dissatisfied dissatisfied dissatisfied

APPENDIX E
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

Identification number: _____

IMPORTANT: BE SURE TO ANSWER EVERY QUESTION: DONOT OMIT ANY

Age: _____

Occupation, even if not presently employed (be as specific as possible): _____

Total years of education: _____

Highest degree obtained: _____

Length of time separated and/or divorced (in years): _____

Length of time married (in years): _____

Ages of children currently living with you: _____

Ages of children who do not live with you: _____

Contact with you husband/former husband:

The number of regular child support payments received on time during the past 12 months is _____.

I have seen him about _____ times in the past 12 months.

I have talked to him on the phone about _____ times in the past 12 months.

He currently lives in (city, state): _____.

Who first mentioned getting separated/divorced?

_____ I did.

_____ My husband did.

Have you ever received professional help in relation to your separation/divorce?

_____ Yes

_____ No

Current marital status:

_____ Separated, have not filed

_____ Separated, have filed

_____ Legally separated

_____ Divorced

Are you currently involved in an important relationship? Yes___ No___

Are you currently dating? Yes ___ No___

What was your parents' marital status during your childhood? _____

How many brothers and sisters do you have? _____

APPENDIX F
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA
STUDENT HEALTH SERVICE
Gainesville, Florida 32611

Dear Participant,

I am conducting a study about the separation and divorce experiences of women with children. I am a divorced mother myself and the idea for this project came out of my own experiences of being single again and raising my children. I hope that the information gained from this study will enable us to better understand the separation and divorce process for mothers and their children.

I would like your cooperation in completing the attached forms and returning them to me. The information you provide will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law and your name will not appear on the questionnaires.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. No monetary compensation will be given. If, for any reason, you choose not to participate in this study, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice. I will be happy to answer any questions that you may have concerning the questionnaires.

If you would like to take part in the research described above, please sign this form and return it.

INFORMED CONSENT

"I have read and I understand the procedure described above. I agree to participate in the procedure and I have received a copy of this description."

Subject	Date	Lee Cohen Infirmary 350 392-1171	Date
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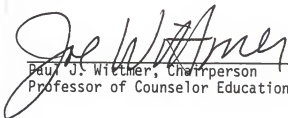
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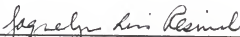
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Eileen M. Cohen, called Lee by friends and colleagues, was born and raised in New York City. She was educated at the University of Chicago (B.A., 1964), Columbia University (M.A., 1973) and the University of Florida. She has two children and is currently employed as a Counseling Psychologist in an academic setting.


I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


Paul J. Wittmer, Chairperson
Professor of Counselor Education

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


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Education

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Professor of Psychology

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Department of Counselor Education in the College of Education and to the Graduate Council, and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

December 1982

Dean for Graduate Studies
and Research